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The World to-day

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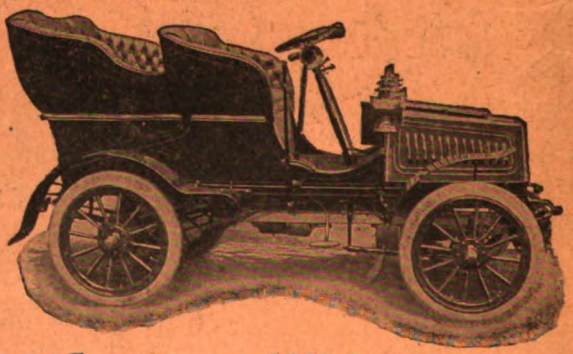

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(See "The Emerson Centenary," page 885.)

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Snapshots from Around the World.

A GROUP OF NOTABLE FIGURES TAKEN DURING KING EDWARD'S VISIT TO PARIS.
King Edward is in center. On his right are the President of the French Senate, the Austrian Ambassador, and M. Combes, Premier of France. On his left, President Loubet, the President of the Chamber, and the English Ambassador.

THE BOER AND BRITON FIGHTING TOGETHER IN THE SOMALILAND CAMPAIGN.
(From "The London Sphere.")

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USKUB: THE STORM CENTER OF MACEDONIA.
Around which fighting is of daily occurrence. (See page 850.)

TYPICAL ALBANIAN WARRIORS.

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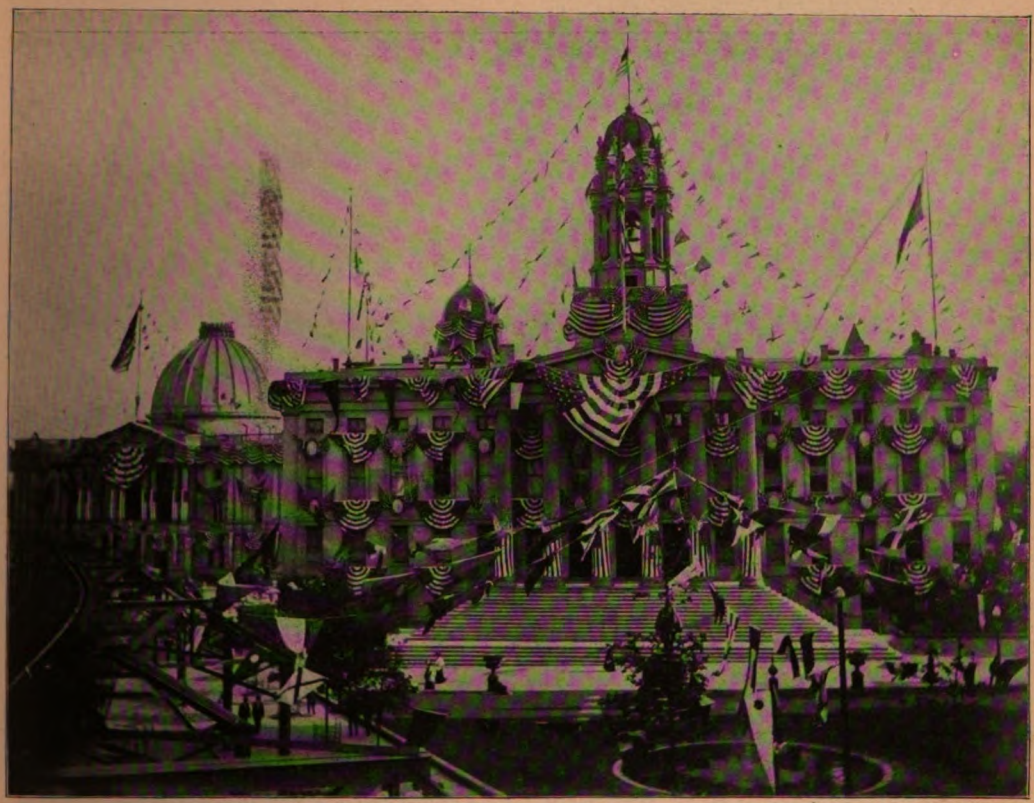

BROOKLYN CITY HALL.
Decorated for the 250th anniversary of the founding of New York City.

THE GREAT PARADE OF KNIGHTS TEMPLAR IN PHILADELPHIA.
The knights passing the reviewing stand, led by the massed bands of 900 musicians playing "Onward Christian Soldiers."

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THE FLOOD IN KANSAS CITY.
Looking west from 6th Street. In the foreground is a freight-shed filled with lime and on fire.

THE FLOOD IN KANSAS CITY; IN THE PACKING HOUSE DISTRICT.
(Courtesy "Chicago American.")

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The World To-Day

VOLUME V. JULY, 1903. NUMBER 1.

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EVENTS OF THE MONTH.

BY CHARLES H. DENNIS.

Americans and Foreign Events. One of the great needs of the time for Americans as a people is emancipation from their accustomed diet of predigested foreign news. That time-honored clearing house for the world's happenings, London, has outlived its usefulness for us in this regard. Americans henceforth must contrive in some way or other to be their own purveyors of information as to foreign events. London's marvelous stores of information relative to all manner of governments and peoples have been a prime convenience to us, but we cannot afford longer to permit ourselves to view all other nations through British spectacles. We do ourselves a great wrong by judging foreigners near and far as the British judge them; we also wrong those upon whom we bestow imported British prejudice. Every tub should stand upon its own bottom and the star-spangled tub can be no exception to this rule. London, because of the great financial and governmental forces centered there, is a whispering gallery for the entire planet. News arriving in that city from any quarter immediately takes on a British tinge, if by any chance it has failed to acquire that tinge at the point of departure. From the British angle of observation, as a matter of course, all news is good or bad, according to the aspect it wears for British interests. This is entirely natural. The trouble comes when the American people take the British version and apply it trustingly to their own uses. It did not very greatly matter, perhaps, that our opinions on foreign affairs were British opinions bolted without chewing when we were content to sit at home and take no part in the world's affairs. Now that we have broadened and extended our policy across the oceans we must do our own thinking and must base it upon information which we can rely on or we shall be continually misled.

How We Make Mistakes. The British government as a going concern of great power possesses a plant complete and effective. American representation abroad is incomplete and largely in the hands of amateurs. It may be conceded that many improvements have been made by the government at Washington in its diplomatic and consular service during recent years without receding from the contention that the service is still painfully incomplete and otherwise faulty. Too frequently our official representatives abroad lean upon their British associates, contenting themselves with forwarding to Washington British information and British conclusions based upon it. Thus the American government as well as the American people are in danger of being misled. It is an anomaly that the United States, containing as it does millions of persons who formerly resided in European countries, is still so generally ignorant of foreign tongues and

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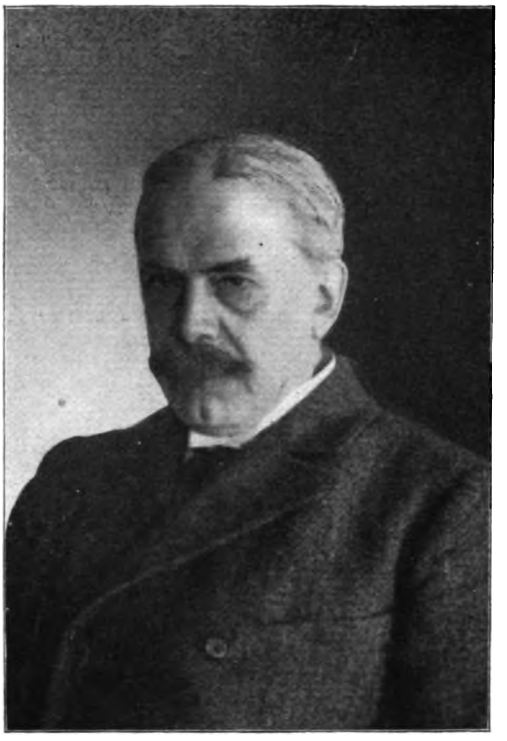
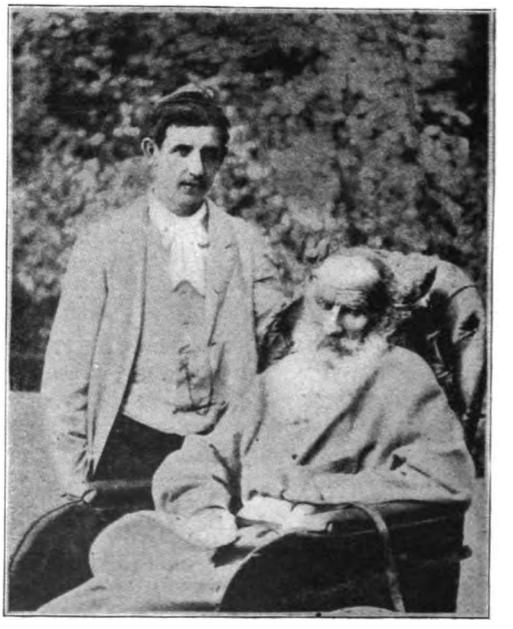


COUNT CASSINI.
The Russian Ambassador to the United States.

foreign institutions. The educated European commonly speaks fluently from two to half a dozen languages. We are so busy melting up in our crucible the aliens who apply to us for citizenship and making Americans of them that we do not recognize the advantage of becoming fairly familiar with the languages, the aspirations and the methods of government of great nations beyond the Atlantic. On the contrary, we adopt the foolish and dangerous practice of taking the cue from London whenever we are called upon to make up our minds about a European ruler or statesman, policy or incident. Until we change all this we shall never do justice to ourselves or to continental nations.

Russia and the British.

In the past we have had in Russia, and we still have, a friend and well wisher. Yet it seems impossible for us to regard that nation in any light save that of British prejudice. Russia is a huge and despotic country, governed by a bureaucracy which it is impossible to admire except in the archaic meaning of the word by which admiration is synonymous with astonishment and wonder. Yet the forces set at work by the government at St. Petersburg are constructive if elemental. If they are barbarous they are effective. Necessarily we must disapprove of the process by which the Finns are made over into Russians. We cry out at the persecution of the Russian Jews. We recall with horror the general massacre of Chinese at Blagovestchensk. But these and other features of Russian governmental methods are not our affair, except so far as they result in swelling to harmful proportions the stream of immigration of Russia's wretched subjects. We have our own lynchings and race riots and we should not take it kindly if foreign nations were to call us to account for them. Sometimes they have to call us to account, however, when American mobs destroy the lives or the property of their citizens. British sentiment as aroused by Russian misdeeds is in some respects another matter; for the British desire to impress Persia and Afghanistan and other nations lying in the path of Russian expansion with the inherent wickedness of Russia's methods, by way of counteracting Muscovite influence over those border countries. American sentiment against Russian



COUNT TOLSTOI.
The champion of the Russian peasant classes.

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atrocities should be based on actual knowledge of them and should not be colored by versions especially adjusted to Great Britain's foreign policy. No disparagement to the latter country is meant by this, since prejudice based on national needs or aspirations is not peculiar to any people.

American Trade in Manchuria.

While we are told continually by the British that Russian diplomacy is distinctly oriental in that it consists of falsehoods and evasions, the fact remains that in the past the United States has had no cause for serious complaint against Russia in this respect. We wish to maintain the open door for trade in Manchuria as well as in the rest of China. Russia has promised that it shall be maintained. Here is an excellent opportunity to test on our own account the sincerity of M. Witte. It is already reported from Peking that China's recent refusal to open new ports in Manchuria to American trade is due to Russian opposition, but it would be unjust to condemn Russia on the unsupported word of a Chinese diplomat. It is asserted also that Manchuria's trade in American cotton goods recently has received a severe reverse through the action of Russian officials in compelling Chinese merchants to make enormous purchases of Russian goods. Such reports, of which London is prolific, naturally tend to make Americans doubt the good faith of Russian ministers; yet Ambassador McCormick insists that he has positive assurances from M. Witte that the latter is a stanch friend of the open door policy in Manchuria, holding that American trade is important to the development of the country and consequently to the financial success of the Trans-Siberian railway. We should see before very long whether British correspondents or American diplomats have the better understanding of Russia's intentions when it gives us categorical assurances as to its Manchurian policy.

Trying to Checkmate Russia.

The United States can have no sympathy with Great Britain's persistent and long continued efforts to keep Russia away from the unfrozen seas. The Turk is tolerated in Europe because his possession of Constantinople prevents Russian ships from securing an outlet to the Mediterranean. The Anglo-Japanese efforts to induce Russia to retire from Manchuria after it has built its railway across that province and made for itself the splendid seaport of Dalny on the Yellow Sea far south of Vladivostok are so futile as to be absolutely insincere. The recent public announcement by Lord Lansdowne, British foreign minister, that the establishment of a naval base or a

THE SHAH OF PERSIA.
Whose favor is courted by both England and Russia.

fortified port in the Persian gulf by any other power would be regarded as a grave menace to British interests and would be resisted with all the means at the government's disposal was, of course, a notice to Russia that it must not try for an outlet in that direction. Russia is so tremendous an antagonist that Great Britain does well to retard the growth of its vast authority in two continents only in case it cannot arrive at a safe working agreement with

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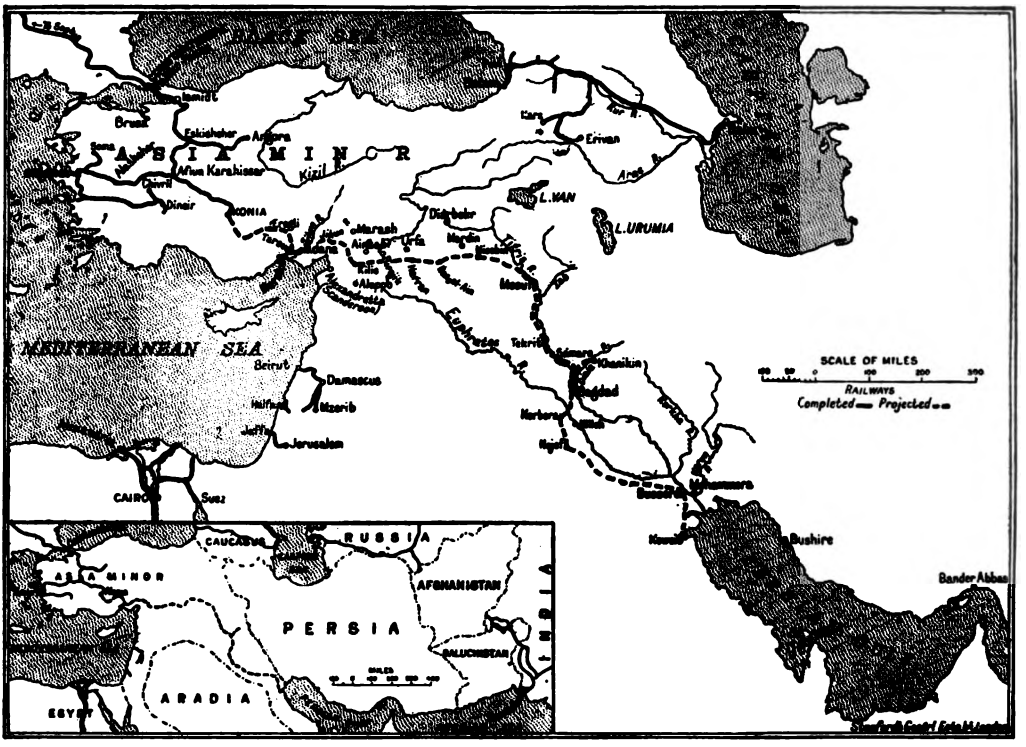

MAP SHOWING PROPOSED ROUTE OF THE BAGDAD RAILWAY FROM KONIA TO KOWEIT AND THE LOCATION OF BANDAR ABBAS, THE SOUTHERN TERMINUS OF THE NEW RUSSIAN RAILWAY.

the Czar's government. It is absurd to expect that Russia will change its policy or retire upon itself in any direction because of British opposition. It is bound to crush through to the southern seas sooner or later and no foreign government can prevent it. Russia works on interior lines and along great railway systems projected for that purpose from the heart of the empire. British fleets can never prevail against these tactics and British armies are equally powerless to hold Russia back. While England contemplates this problem of the glacier-like advance of Russia, it cannot be an unprejudiced observer of Russian institutions. It is imperative that the people of the United States shall not absorb British prejudice in regard to Russia without good reason. They should investigate and judge for themselves.

Another Monroe Doctrine.

Lord Lansdowne's declaration regarding the Persian gulf has been very generally recognized as an application of the principle of the Monroe Doctrine to British interests in Asia. Since a naval station belonging to another European power that would lie upon the sea route to India must be a menace to British authority in that quarter it is not surprising that the British government applies the doctrine of exclusiveness and stands ready to fight for its maintenance. Still it may be questioned whether Russia will be thwarted there any more than in Manchuria. Four years ago Russia received from Persia the exclusive right for ten years to construct railways in the latter country. A Russian railway extending through Persia to the gulf, presumably with a southern terminus at Bandar Abbas, is already planned. To construct it would be merely to carry out Russia's policy and to add a third notable line to the Trans-Siberian and Trans-Caspian systems by which St. Petersburg dominates so large a part of Asia. Russia has taken over Persia's national debt by providing it with a loan of 22,500,000 roubles and the customs receipts of most of the Shah's empire are now administered by Russian financiers in the interests of Russian bond-

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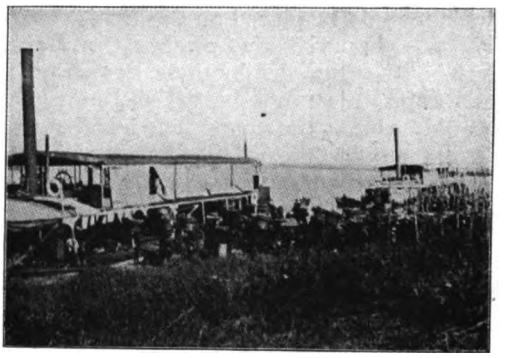
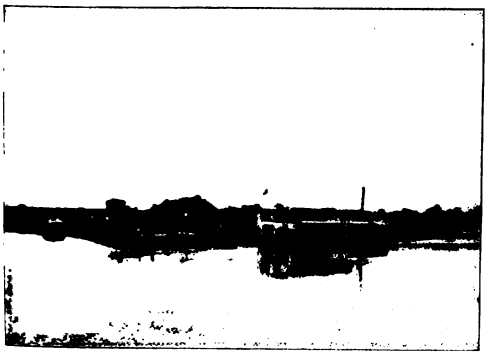
holders. It is not likely that Russia will relax its hold on Persia; far more likely is it to seize the first favorable opportunity to acquire a port on the gulf and leave Great Britain to carry out its threats or to forget them.

Growth of British Territory.

Since King Edward came to the throne a little more than two years ago the British empire has been increased by the acquisition of lands greater in extent than the whole of France. These include the conquered Boer republics and recent great additions to British Nigeria, amounting to 100,000 square miles, won by conquest of the Fulah empire, which a black sultan ruled, his capital being at Sokoto. Since the people are Mohammedans and King Edward was already possessed of millions of Mohammedan subjects, there is nothing especially novel in this latest addition to British territory. It was necessary to control and police the country and the British doubtless will get some good out of it in exchange for the money spent there. If efforts which are now making to organize a movement for the cultivation of cotton on an extensive scale in this and adjacent parts of west Africa shall be successful these new lands may become a highly important part of the empire. A recent conference of British manufacturers at Liverpool resulted in a general agreement that the extensive growing of cotton in Africa must be undertaken if any feasible plan can be hit upon, since continued dependence upon the American crop is objectionable for various reasons. The great, if not insurmountable, difficulty in the way of carrying out the project is the absence of such labor as that supplied by the American negro with splendid results in the cotton growing regions of the United States.



WOODING A STEAMER AT SUKUN, NIGERIA.



LANDING PLACE AT EGGA, NIGERIA.

British Tariff Plans.

Just before the Whitsuntide recess of the British Parliament Mr. Balfour startled the nation by announcing that he was in thorough accord with Colonial Secretary Chamberlain's views as to the desirability of establishing preferential trade relations with the colonies of the empire. In other words, he favored the adoption of a protective tariff by Great Britain. This announcement was made on May 28. Two weeks earlier, on May 15, Mr. Chamberlain, speaking to his fellow townsmen in Birmingham, outlined his views on this subject in a bold speech, thus bringing the issue prominently before the nation. On the same day Mr. Balfour, replying to a delegation that called to protest against the abolition of the tax on grain in the new budget reported a few days earlier by Mr. Ritchie, declared that a tariff policy could not be adopted as if by accident, but must come, if at all, as a result of the deliberate choice of the people. The argument of Mr. Chamberlain, which Mr. Balfour accepts, is that a tax must be laid upon foodstuffs in order that preferential treatment may be extended to the British colonies, thus binding them to the mother country. It is further urged that imported goods must be taxed in the interests of British manufacturers, since the latter could not compete in a time of dull trade with the products of foreign trusts—such as, for example, the American steel trust—

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which would be placed on the British market at ruinously low prices. Raw materials, it is conceded by these British tariff advocates, must not be taxed, since that would cripple the manufacturers or else would require the establishment of a bewildering system of drawbacks. As for the British workingman, says Mr. Chamberlain, he would have to pay more for his food under a tariff system, but his wages would be increased more than enough to

JOSEPH CHAMBERLAIN.
The most talked of man in England. From a recent photograph.

offset this. Besides, the entire proceeds of the tariff might be expended on a system of old age pensions and other similar benefits.

Britons and the Empire.

It is no new thing to be told that Mr. Balfour and Mr. Chamberlain, like Lord Salisbury, are protectionists. That has been known for years. They hold that free trade is the proper policy of nations, but that Great Britain cannot afford to cling to it after all the other powers of the earth have erected tariff walls to keep out British goods which compete with their home manufactures. Canada's action in granting preferential duties to British goods and that of Germany in penalizing Canadian goods in consequence is held by Mr. Chamberlain to afford striking evidence of the benefits which Great Britain would gain both financially and politically by being in a position to grant reciprocal favors to its colonies and to protect them by sympathetic attacks upon nations which discriminate against them. Mr. Chamberlain asserts that the great colonies of the empire, such as Canada, Australia and South Africa, will be lost to it within a few years unless a Zollverein such as Germany has evolved shall bind them to the mother country. To this the opponents of the plan reply that while the colonies are important, so are the Englishmen who pay the charges of imperial defense. Englishmen, say the free traders, cannot permit their food to be taxed in order that the colonies may prosper at their expense. The claim that wages will rise and that prosperity will increase under a protective system is denied by the Liberals and by doubters in the ranks of the ministerial party. Naturally the British land owners and the agricultural population generally are inclined to look with favor upon the new policy, since it promises to add greatly to the profits of farming. But the laborers of the great cities will have to be convinced that protection is a good thing for them before they will accept it.

Days of the Corn Laws.

When the British corn laws were enacted in 1815 for the deliberate purpose of keeping the food of the people dear so that the land owners might benefit by high prices for grain, the government was run for the convenience of the proprietors of great estates. During the succeeding thirty years the long agitation which found its best expression in the great labors of Cobden and Bright, Peel and Gladstone, the masses of Englishmen came to mean much in affairs of government and measures were enacted for them rather than for favored classes. The corn laws were re-

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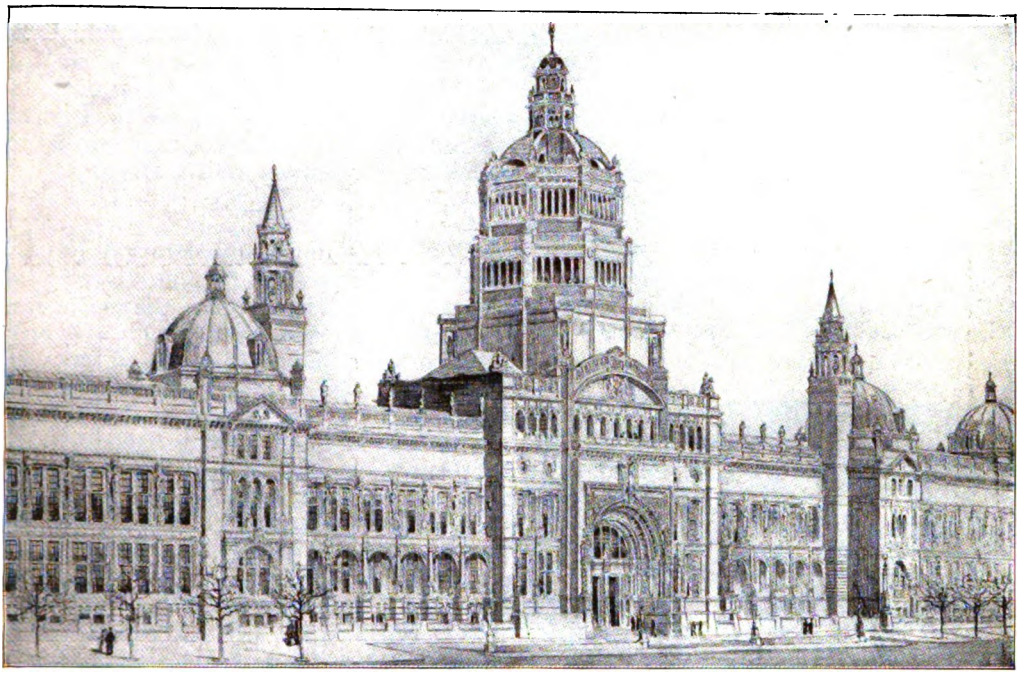

THE FINALLY ACCEPTED DESIGN FOR THE NEW VICTORIA MUSEUM OF SCIENCE AND ART, AT SOUTH KENSINGTON, LONDON, ENGLAND.

The foundation-stone of this building was laid by Queen Victoria, May 17, 1899, but the architect has just given out the design in its final form.

pealed in 1846; thenceforth the British government adopted the free-trade policy, and in 1867 gave to the common people the right to participate in the government. The triumphant advance of the nation thus endowed with wise laws has been one of the glories of later civilization. The starving poor who rose in riots early in the century to smash machinery and burn farm ricks were replaced by a contented and fairly prosperous people with work in plenty and food at reasonable cost. But the owners of great estates suffered, since their grain became unprofitable when it was brought into competition with the cheap foodstuffs of America and other countries. The many profitable industries, the enormous growth of the new manufacturing towns and similar manifestations of wealth and progress more than offset the losses of the land owners. England is great and rich; its financial and industrial resources are the wonder of the world. Under free trade it has been immensely prosperous.

Questions of National Defense.

But this wonderful prosperity was largely the growth of years that were unvexed by serious competition. Under shelter of its war tariff the United States was building up its infant industries and trying to supply its own market with manufactured articles. Neither Germany nor France was in a position to make headway against the British trader in the world's markets. With cheap and abundant foodstuffs and raw materials imported free from the United States the British manufacturer fed his looms and his labor at low cost. There was no cloud of trouble in his sky. Prosperous at home and feared abroad, he had no reason to feel that the era of free trade and isolation must come to an end presently. The problem was simple. Keep a navy afloat powerful enough to convoy the grain fleets to British shores in time of war and to protect British merchantmen on the seas and there could come no harm to the self-sufficient island. As for British arms,

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their countless successes in little wars in various parts of the earth were supposed to prove that the prowess of the Briton could be relied upon to defend the empire against all assaults on land. Then came the awakening. Germany and the United States began their formidable rivalry with Great Britain for control of the world's markets. Even the British market was not secure in the face of such powerful competition. Worse even than this, British manhood failed to give an impressive

THE LATEST PHOTOGRAPH OF QUEEN ALEXANDRA.

demonstration of its worth when pitted against the forces of two puny farmer republics in the interior of Africa. Colonials sent from Canada and Australia or enlisted at the Cape showed by contrast how ineffective were the boasted fighting men of the British army when opposed by brave and skillful enemies. The wretched physical condition of many thousands of the recruits sent out from England hinted at an exhausted race which could not surely defend the empire in a grapple with a great and warlike foe. Since the colonies bred better fighters it was absurd to expect them to remain in awe of the mother country's shop-boys in khaki. The problem of national defense thenceforth involved the devising of a system whereby the colonials would be available for the empire's wars.

Manhood and the Empire.

Imperial federation has become a question largely of manhood. The colonial is free and fit. He governs himself and he taxes the goods imported from the mother country in order to raise revenue with which to run his government. His products get no favors in England over products imported from other countries. Mr. Chamberlain asserts that unless they are given preferential treatment the producing colonies will declare for independence before very long. At best the favors in the way of trade which they could give in exchange for a preferential tariff bestowed upon them by Great Britain would be relatively small, since anything like free entry for British goods would be out of the question in view of the revenue needs of the colonial governments. That was clearly shown at Mr. Chamberlain's conferences last summer with the colonial premiers. Canada's preferential tariff is something; its value is lessened by the prospect that from the start it will involve the mother country in a dangerous and costly tariff war with Germany. If, however, the great colonies can be bound securely to the island kingdom by ties of interest and can be induced to take on a considerable share of the burden of national defense, including the duty of supplying men to fight for the empire, the center will have gained enormously in strength from the circumference. Such problems as those of conserving colonial manhood and checkmating foreign industrial combines did not confront Sir Robert Peel two generations ago. Mr. Chamberlain's great plan very likely has in it somewhere a vast emigration scheme by which congested England may be relieved of its overplus of population, thus raising wages at home while putting more Britons into the open air on colonial farms to become producers of foodstuffs for the British market and to learn to shoot and ride in defense of the British empire.

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Will the Policy Win?

The crushing burdens that are laid upon them by the huge cost of the Boer war and by the enormous fixed expenses of the army and navy have filled the British taxpayers with discontent. The extreme unpopularity of the education measures, which have greatly incensed the Nonconformists, has weakened the Conservatives very much. Irish support of the government does not suffice to relieve it from the danger of an overthrow. If the daring plans of Mr. Balfour and Mr. Chamberlain shall catch the popular fancy with the splendid promise of imperial federation and higher wages for the working classes patriotic fervor may strengthen the ministry. If the plans do not succeed in arousing British patriotism and British hopes at least the ministry will go out of office in the splendor of a great idea instead of as an agglomeration of purposeless statesmen who have run their course. It is not too much to assert that the plans which Mr. Balfour and Mr. Chamberlain have laid before the country are likely to be adopted sooner or later; for they give promise of holding the colonies together. The difficulties to be overcome are, of course, enormous. What parliamentary battles and what appeals to the voters will precede the adoption of the policy lie hidden in the future. To say offhand that its acceptance is impossible is to deny Great Britain's need to draw together its scattered forces and prepare to make the most of the empire's material resources and of its manhood.

Effect on Our Trade.

The United Kingdom is far and away our best customer among all the nations. During 1902 our total exports to that country amounted to $548,548,477, as against $806,933,384 exported to all other foreign countries, including the British colonies. Add to the former figures our trade in mining machinery, farm implements and many other important manufactures with Canada, South Africa, Australia and other British possessions, and the total is indeed formidable. It would be foolish to say, therefore, that the people of the United States are not directly interested in the proposal to tax American products in British markets while colonial foodstuffs enter those markets free and to discriminate against American manufactures in colonial markets in the interests of British goods. We should do ourselves a great injustice, however, if we should feel alarm at the prospect, even if the success of the Balfour-Chamberlain programme were far more likely than it now appears to be. We should continue to sell enormous quantities of foodstuffs and manufactured articles to the British. England must have our cotton, since Egypt and India are not formidable rivals in the production of that staple, and even Mr. Chamberlain flinches at the thought of taxing raw materials. Besides, the British spindles would be operated by workmen who paid taxes upon their food and therefore would require more wages than they get at present to make up the difference. Thus the competition in prices between the American and the British manufacturer not only of cotton goods but of other articles of commerce would be more favorable to the former than it is at present. If wise reciprocity regulations are adopted by this government it should be possible for the American producer actually to benefit by a British tariff in the markets of the world. If Great Britain chooses to sacrifice foreign trade in the interests of imperial federation we should have sufficient wisdom and skill to profit elsewhere by its changes of methods.

Kishinev Massacre of Jews.

Russia's policy of repression applied so long and so rigorously to the 5,000,000 Jews within its borders has borne legitimate fruit in the horrible massacre at Kishinev during the Easter celebration. While there is reason to think that this riot of assassination and pillage was inspired by attacks made upon the Jews in an anti-Semitic newspaper of that city and that fanaticism and other forms of ignorance inspired the mob's leaders, the fact remains that the authorities for two days permitted the mob to work its will. Slaying, wounding and looting went on unchecked, though a little resistance sufficed in some instances to drive away the so-called "thunderers," who worked in gangs of about twenty, being assisted by a miscellaneous rabble. Rumors had been sown broadcast to the effect that Jews had

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MURDERED JEWS COLLECTED FROM THE STREETS OF KISHINEV THE DAY AFTER THE MASSACRE.

killed a Christian as part of a religious rite and that the Czar had ordered the Jews to be plundered. Kishinev, a city of 110,000 inhabitants, containing a strong garrison of military and the residence of the governor of the province of Bessarabia, left the "thunderers" to work their will in its Jewish quarter during long hours of bloodshed and robbery. The governor of the province and the chief officer of police were removed from their positions by the imperial government for their failure to prevent the massacre and numerous arrests also were made of persons participating in the outrages. While it would be unjust to charge the imperial government with having had any part in the monstrous crime at least the government is to blame for the oppressive laws which have fostered hatred of the Jews. The universal cry of horror which has arisen at this butchery ought to force the government to adopt measures which will guard against the possibility of such insensate deeds in the future.

Fate of Russia's Jews.

Perhaps it is too much to hope that Russia will cease to oppress its Jews and will permit them to live in peace in their homes. Conditions in the southern provinces are such that heavy emigration to this country by the persecuted race is to be expected. Already the tide of refugees from Russia as well as from Roumania is flowing strong. Secretary Hay has protested to no purpose against the policy of the Roumanian government which forces so large a number of Jews out of that country to the detriment of the United States, whither most of them come. It is not likely that a protest addressed to the government of the Czar would have any better effect. Half of all the Jews in the world live in Russia. It is urged against them that they fleece and otherwise oppress the peasants. It is reasonable to assume that this sweeping accusation is unjust. But whether unjust or not, the fact remains that the Russian Jews must

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TWO SCENES IN KISHINEV SHOWING JEWISH BUSINESS QUARTERS DESTROYED

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JEWISH WORKINGMEN'S HOUSES DEMOLISHED AT KISHINEV.

live somewhere. If Russian oppression is to drive them out where shall they go? The Zionist movement, in spite of the immense difficulties in the way of its success, has won the approval of many intelligent Jews. Whether or not Dr. Herzl is right in thinking that Palestine could furnish homes and subsistence for the persecuted Jews of Russia and Roumania, at least it is certain that the formation of a Jewish state in some part of the world where unhappy members of the race could find an asylum from the oppression of intolerant governments is much to be desired. It should be less difficult to establish the Russian Jews in Palestine or Cyprus, as the Zionists advocate, than to convey them to the United States.

Figures on Immigration.

It is natural to expect that the recent massacre in Kishinev and minor outrages will greatly swell the tide of immigration of Russian Jews to the United States during the coming year. The number already on the way hither is known to be large. The reports of prosperity and the activity of steamship agents have brought immigrants in great numbers from other countries also. The end of the fiscal year, June 30, saw all records broken for new arrivals from abroad. The largest previous figures for any year were those of 1882, when 788,992 immigrants came to the United States. The indications were early in June that the total for the fiscal year just closed would amount to nearly 1,000,000. Very likely the efforts of great mining and railway corporations to secure cheap labor in abundance have had a good deal to do with bringing about the recent extraordinary immigration. While the assimilation of such vast masses of ignorant aliens is an appalling task in many respects, the nation's past experience is not such as to warrant the fear that the task will not be fairly well performed. It is disquieting to be told, however, that the immigrants now arriving almost without exception herd together in the cities, avoiding new sections of the country and increasing to an almost intolerable degree the congestion in tenement districts. Considering how momentous already is the tenement question, here is cause for anxiety.

President's Tour Ended.

Between the time of his departure from Washington on April 1 and his return to the capital on the evening of June 5, President Roosevelt traveled through half the states of the Union. The impression made by him upon the people was unique. Amid the hurry of a journey 14,000 miles in length and filled with the wearing labor of making speeches, shaking hands and continually adjusting himself to new surroundings, the president retained his alertness, his enthusiastic interest in all that went on about him, and his air of frankness and comradeship. Cowboy or capitalist, locomotive engineer or governor of a commonwealth, the man to whom he talked felt that here was a visitor who was interested in him and in the things with which he was familiar. Everywhere it was a case of man meeting man on equal terms, the good lasting stuff which makes the real American counting above all else. Here was a president who approved of the achiever even more than of the achievement. Show him a new city and he wanted to see the men who built it, deeming them the worthier sight. His admiration was lavished upon the determination which brought forth results rather than upon the results themselves. He went about as a connoisseur in manhood. The Americans thus greeted by their chief executive singly or in mass were immensely gratified by the interest he took in them. They felt that they were appreciated at their true worth. Satisfied with themselves, they were also satisfied with their distinguished and virile admirer.

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THE PRESIDENT AND HIS PARTY IN THE GRAND CANYON, ARIZONA.
From the left in order are Dr. Rixey, President Roosevelt, Governor Brodie of Arizona, President Morton of the Santa Fe R. R. and President Butler, Columbia University. (The photographs herewith were taken for THE WORLD TO-DAY, by N. Lazarnick.)

THE PRESIDENT'S ARRIVAL AT GRAND CANYON, ARIZONA.

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PRESIDENT ROOSEVELT SPEAKING TO SCHOOL CHILDREN AT PASADENA, CALIFORNIA.
His path was strewn with roses.

PRESIDENT ROOSEVELT SPEAKING TO AN AUDIENCE OF MEXICANS AND INDIANS AT SELIGMAN, ARIZONA.

PRESIDENT ROOSEVELT AND PARTY AT THE FOOT OF A GRIZZLY GIANT IN CALIFORNIA.
On his left is John Muir, the famous naturalist.

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Effect on the People.

In the last of the scores of speeches made by him during the trip, that delivered at Indianapolis June 4, Mr. Roosevelt said: "The thing that has struck me more than aught else wherever I have been is the fundamental unity of our people." That is a good thing for a president or for any other American to discover and to wear next his heart. In these recent years of prosperity the West has made remarkable progress in paying off its mortgages. It feels no resentment toward the East, now that interest payments from the farms go no longer to Milk Street, Boston. That was the only cloud which ever came between them and that was a rather small cloud at the worst. With every change of season the unity of the republic becomes more marked. This is true not only of the East and West but of those parts of the country in their relations with the South. A president who, though a New Yorker, has lived a considerable part of his life in the West and knows and admires the West, where he in turn is sincerely admired, must necessarily aid in bringing the people of the two sections to a fuller realization that those characteristics which Americans have in common render them worthy of one another's confidence. To this great people the president has been preaching assiduously the doctrine of peaceful methods, national courtesy and preparedness. "Speak softly and carry a big stick." "Hit seldom and never hit soft." "Never draw unless you intend to shoot." We have maxims enough now at our disposal to make even Sancho Panza envious. They are as good as they are homely, however much we may feel amazed to find ourselves so frequently admonished as to proper methods of hitting or shooting. From first to last throughout his tour, the president continually urged the people to approve the policy of building up a great navy in the interests of peace. Any hasty review of his many addresses will show that this was his favorite topic throughout his trip.

Control of the Pacific.

At San Francisco, Tacoma, Seattle and other coast cities the president laid especial stress upon the great destiny of the United States in relation to the commerce of the Pacific. The long sweep of our western coast, from the Arctic circle to Mexico, our plans in regard to the Panama canal, our possession of the Hawaiian islands and the Philippines, unquestionably give us the right to feel that it is ours to hold the commanding position in that vast ocean. Though foreign nations turn curious eyes upon the American executive who in the capacity of seer makes excursions into the future somewhat to their disadvantage, any one who realizes the material results that come from arousing in a great cause the imaginations of a vigorous people will recognize that the president's addresses are well calculated to advance the nation on the line of large achievement in the Pacific. Among the president's prophecies also is this, from his speech at Seattle, May 23: "The men of my age who are in this great audience will not be old men before they will see one of the greatest and most populous states of the entire union in Alaska." Here is another, from the same speech: "I predict that Alaska will, within the next century, support as large a population as does the entire Scandinavian peninsula of Europe." Think of it! Are there to be a Stockholm and a Gothenburg in our northern territory? In suggestions like these Mr. Roosevelt is unique. He sets people thinking. He has ideas that are not frayed with wear and he imparts them to whomsoever happens to be listening.

Roosevelt and His Party.

Republican state conventions in Pennsylvania and Ohio, the former held late in May and the latter early in June, advocated in their platforms the nomination of President Roosevelt next year for a second term. Much interest attached to the Ohio convention, which met in Columbus June 3, the reluctance of Senator Hanna to have it make a declaration as to the presidency being interpreted by many as an outcropping of the opposition of Wall street interests to the present chief executive. Mr. Hanna's declarations that he was not a candidate should have protected him from the suspicion of wanting to hold the state in reserve for himself: however, that suspicion was voiced by some. Senator Foraker's determination to force forward the question of declaring for Roosevelt gave promise of arousing factional bitterness. A few days

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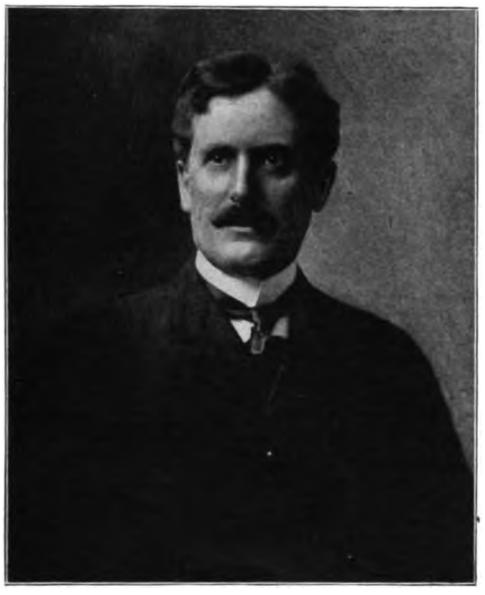
before the convention, however, Mr. Roosevelt gave out in Walla Walla, Wash., this statement: "I have not asked any man for his support. I have had nothing to do with raising the issue as to my indorsement. Sooner or later it was bound to arise, and inasmuch as it has arisen, of course those who favor my administration and nomination will indorse them and those who do not will oppose them." This had the effect of causing Mr. Hanna immediately to withdraw his opposition to the president's indorsement, which became a feature of the convention's platform. Mr. Hanna doubtless was sincere in declaring



MYRON T. HERRICK.
Nominated for Governor of Ohio by the Republican State Convention.

that next year's action by the Republicans of the state in regard to the presidency should not have been forestalled by a convention which had not been chosen to consider the matter. At any rate he is too astute not to be aware that in all human probability there will be no considerable opposition in the party next year to Mr. Roosevelt's nomination.

Looking for an Issue.

Nothing is ever perfect. Yet Senator Hanna, who last year recommended that the Republican party "stand pat," now advises that it "let well enough alone" and "keep on letting it alone." Will this program serve? Senator Hanna's state platform urges that efforts be made to improve the relations existing between employers and their workmen, that harmful monopolies be curbed, that the tariff be maintained but that "timely readjustment of schedules" be arranged to meet changing conditions, and that local bank circulation be stimulated to increase the elasticity of the currency. There is in the platform also a declaration of adherence to all the amendments to the constitution growing out of the Civil War, which presumably implies that the Ohio Republicans do not acquiesce in the disfranchisement of negroes in the South. These somewhat shadowy expressions in regard to national policy are anything but illuminating. The Pennsylvania Republicans for their part saw no reason for equivocation as far as the tariff was concerned. In their state platform they "deprecate any suggestion of a general revision at the present time of the existing tariff law." Business interests, they hold, must not be imperiled "by any suggestions of present interference with revenue legislation." Pennsylvania is never at a loss to know what to say on that subject. But the expressions on the tariff in the Ohio platform, especially in view of Senator Hanna's well known attitude, may be supposed to indicate that the Republican leaders are just now at pause on the subject of revision. That the Democrats are to make their fight on the old issue of tariff reform next year is almost certain. In view of the vote in New York last fall and the dissatisfaction of Wall street with the president's trust policy the Democrats believe that they can carry the state next year. It would be foolish therefore for the Republicans to ignore the tariff reform sentiment in the West, particularly in view of the high prices which the people now are required to pay for many necessary articles. A promise of tariff revision "by the tariff's friends" may be expected to play a part in the national canvass of the Republicans next year.

Questions of Reciprocity.

But the Republicans are now in full control of the national government and they have ample time to revise the tariff before the next campaign if they wish to do so. The party leaders have the excuse

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that they have no mandate from the people to take up tariff revision. Political expediency is on the side of letting it go over. Campaign funds are to be raised; powerful financial interests are incensed at the President because he has interfered with the operations of certain trusts. The manufacturers, however, must take a lively interest in any campaign that is fought out on the tariff issue and their interest will be of value to the campaign managers and to the party that commands their support. To enact new tariff laws and then go before the people to defend them would be a most unsatisfactory and difficult task. Promises, as all politicians know, are the thing. But the question of trade reciprocity is bound to come prominently before Congress within the next few months. In November it is to meet in special session to consider the Cuban reciprocity treaty. Powerful interests are demanding reciprocity with Canada and the agitation in Great Britain started by Mr. Chamberlain is likely to open the eyes of many American protectionists to the advisability of responding to the friendly advances so frequently made to them by their northern neighbor. The Millers' National Federation, meeting in Detroit on June 4, adopted resolutions demanding the speedy adoption of such trade reciprocity as would afford relief to the great industry which it represents. The plight of the millers well illustrates the benefits which could be derived from wise reciprocity measures. Canadian wheat is excluded from the United States by a duty of 25 cents a bushel. It is shipped abroad therefore to be ground into flour by foreign millers, as is also much of the wheat raised in this country. The products of American mills in the meantime are excluded from various foreign countries by high duties. Clearly the milling industry could be greatly benefited by trade reciprocity.

Cuba's Year of Progress.

Joyous celebrations in Havana and other cities of Cuba on May 20 marked the completion of the republic's first year of independence. President Palma's enthusiastic reception by the people of Havana during the public ceremonies of the day was a richly merited tribute to his wise and patriotic management of the new nation's affairs. The prophets of evil who could see no hope for Cuba when the American flag was pulled down at Morro Castle May 20, 1902, now behold in the island an astonishing display of prosperity, contentment, and material growth. Cuba has raised an enormous crop of sugar, which will be sold at a good profit. The old plantations have nearly all been reclaimed and much new land has been put under cultivation. The railway development, under the skillful management of Sir William Van Horne, of the Canadian Pacific, has been rapid and all parts of the island are being opened up. The government's expenses have been met promptly. The schools and the sanitary regulations have received careful attention. There is a large cash balance in the treasury. Deserving congratulation, therefore, was President Palma on the anniversary of the nation's birth. Secretary Root in a dispatch to him on that day said: "The year of successful administration and respect for law has confounded the enemies of Cuba and strengthened the courage and hope of her friends." One proof of this is that talk of Cuban annexation has died out in this country. There is no reason apparent why the new republic should not continue to be a prosperous and well-governed nation as long as civilization endures. On May 22 Señor Zaldo, Cuban secretary of state, and United States Minister Squiers signed the permanent treaty between the two countries by which Cuba is bound to limit its public debt to a sum which the island's revenues can discharge and the United States is authorized to intervene for the preservation of Cuban independence in time of danger. Opposition to ratification of the treaty by the Cuban Senate was deemed probable, since Señor Sanguilly, the leading opponent of American intervention in Cuban affairs, holds that the treaty gives to the United States the dangerous power of deciding when intervention is desirable, regardless of Cuba's wishes.

Postal Service Evils.

Further investigation of the condition of affairs in the post-office department at Washington has disclosed much extravagance and criminality on the part of certain officials. A. W. Machen, former superintendent of the free delivery system, was arrested on May 27, the spe-

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cific charge against him being that he accepted $22,000 in bribes from maufacturers of postal box fasteners to whom he had given large orders. Forty per cent. of the money received from the government in payment for the fasteners, it is charged, was turned over to Machen. The manufacturers were also arrested on charges of bribery. Two days earlier Daniel V. Miller, an assistant in the office of the assistant attorney general for the postoffice department, was arrested on a charge of accepting a bribe from the operator of a "get-rich-quick" company in exchange for an official ruling favorable to the latter's business.

AUGUST W. MACHEN.
Former Superintendent of the Free Delivery System, arrested for bribery.

Several thousand illegal promotions of postoffice clerks, made by the former chief of the division of salaries and allowances, were canceled by the postmaster general, many illegally created positions were abolished and many salaries were reduced to correspond with the postoffice regulations. A beginning was made also in the reorganization of the rural free delivery service, which has been conducted extravagantly in accordance with the wishes of congressmen or other influential persons rather than on proper lines and to increase the usefulness of the department. Many practically worthless routes are to be abandoned, the service being extended in other places where the population is sufficiently dense to warrant it. Abuses in making leases for postoffices and in ordering supplies are understood to have been discovered also. The President on his return to Washington from his western trip gave prompt attention to the disclosures of wrong doing, and urged that every effort be put forth to purge the postal service of dishonesty and inefficiency. The many and startling evidences of fraud and waste seem to warrant the belief that proper management of this great and profitable institution would turn the annual deficit of the postoffice department into a surplus. The revelations should suffice to compel the adoption of a centralized system of responsible supervision which would prevent in future the wide growth of scandals.

Floods in Western States.

Tornadoes and torrential rains, beginning the latter part of May, created enormous damage in Iowa, Nebraska, Kansas, Missouri, and Oklahoma. Heavy storms lasted in much of that wide region up to the beginning of June. By the last week in May many streams had become swollen to torrents and wide areas were under water. In addition to the ruined crops, cities and smaller towns sustained terrible injury. Railway tracks and bridges were washed away and all forms of property were destroyed, including many cattle. Worst of all, scores of human lives were lost in the raging waters. The calamity that befell North Topeka was doubtless the worst. That flourishing part of Topeka, the capital of Kansas, is divided from the rest of the city by the Kansas River and is situated on low ground. It was the home of about 8,000 persons on the night of May 30, when a vast volume of water poured in upon it, the river having been suddenly turned into a roaring flood by its swollen tributaries. Though the people had been warned of danger only a comparative few had left their homes. The rest were forced to take refuge on the roofs of their houses. Because of the rapidity and extent of the torrent and the scarcity of boats little could be done next day to rescue them. Some houses were swept away and their inmates were drowned. Other houses caught fire

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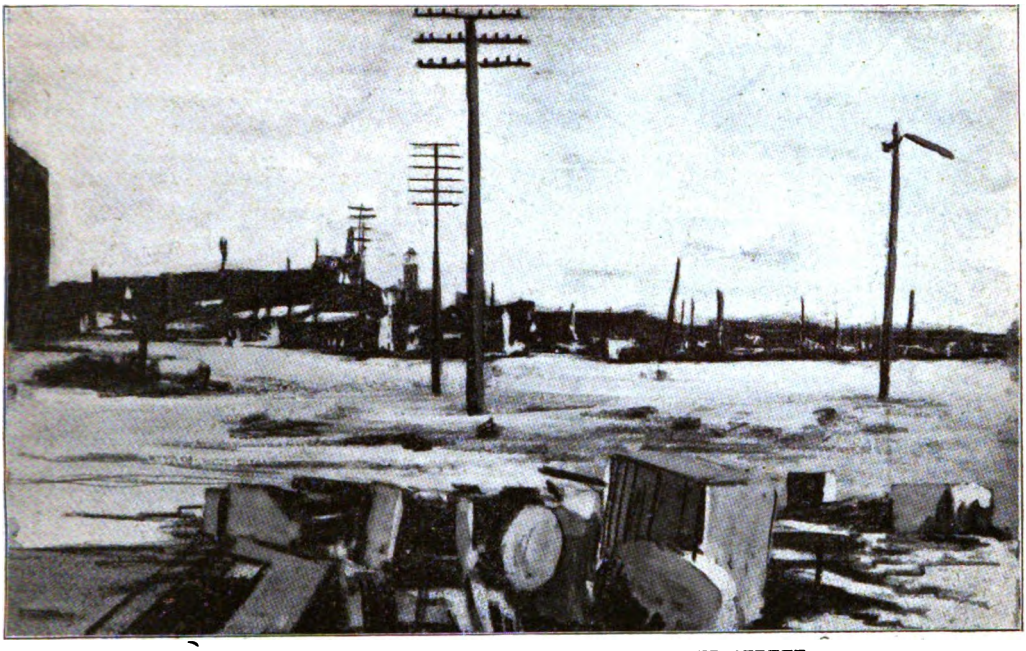

THE FLOOD IN KANSAS CITY: A SCENE ON CENTER STREET.

A FLOODED STREET IN KANSAS CITY.

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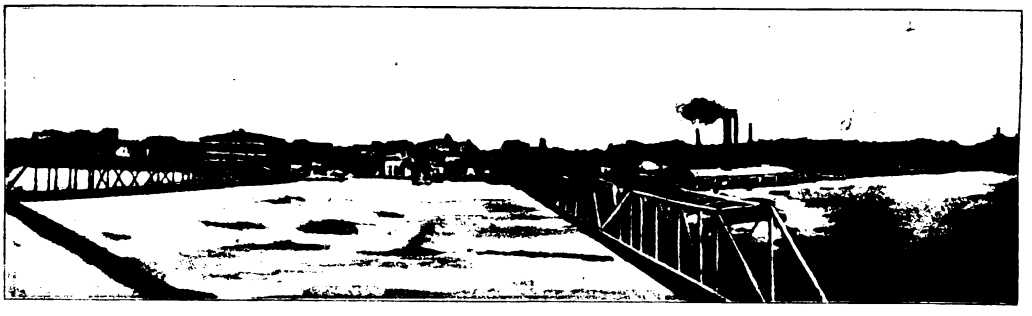
AT THE FOOT OF NINTH STREET, DES MOINES.
(Courtesy "Chicago Daily News."

and were whirled about on the waters, thus adding very much to the peril of the people on the roofs. After several days of danger and efforts at relief, the waters subsided. Kansas City, Mo., Kansas City, Kan., and Armourdale also suffered immense loss, though few lives were sacrificed there. The great packing houses and other large industries in that vicinity were much injured by the overflow from the Missouri and Kansas rivers. Lincoln, Neb., and Des Moines, Ia., as well as scores of towns and villages through a wide area were flooded, much to the discomfort and loss of the people. The floods poured into the Missouri River reached the Mississippi early in June and threatened harm to St. Louis. Levees on the Illinois bank were broken in several places, towns were submerged, and vast stretches of fertile farming lands were swept bare of their growing crops. No other such floods in those populous regions have been known since 1844, when only sparse settlements existed there. That much attention will have to be given to improving channels and strengthening levees along western rivers is made clear by the recent disasters. (For other illustrations of these floods see frontispiece.)



THE FLOOD AT DES MOINES: THE DES MOINES RIVER FROM THE EAST BANK.

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Progress of Labor Disputes.

While a very large number of strikes have vexed the public recently it is significant that the disposition to find a solution for each without any great loss of time is bringing forward effective expedients for securing industrial peace. The opposing forces are acquiring precision in carrying on negotiations. For some reason or other the old method of sticking stubbornly and immovably to one position is going out of fashion. Conciliation in mass, or "collective bargaining," is taking the place of the stupid deadlock of former years. Unless one is greatly deceived by appearances, the movement of the times tends toward ultimate industrial peace. It would be a mistake, of course, to say that there are to be no more great labor wars. With the decline of prosperous conditions there will come a pinch to great industries which is likely to bring about misunderstandings and exhibitions of stubbornness for which populous communities will pay dearly. But the experience which is being gained now in adjusting labor disputes wisely should be a permanent asset for the cause of conciliation. Most valuable of all must prove the growth of confidence in the sincerity and fair dealing of the opposing interest when union or employer is confronted by a labor problem. It is unjust to trades unionism to think that all the irresponsibility is on labor's side, though in the natural order of things that is where it is generally heard of. Sympathetic strikes in the face of contracts, refusals to abide by awards of arbitration boards—these are too common, though they are now less common than formerly they were. Indeed, recently there have been some notable instances of swift and severe punishment bestowed on offending workmen by the officers of their trades unions for failing to abide by their contracts. Among the many employers' associations as well as among the many new unions which have sprung into existence are some which have disclosed a sad lack of wise leadership. On the whole, however, the progress in the direction of better things in the industrial world is marked.

Various Strike Incidents.

On June 1 a strike of workmen in the great textile industries of Philadelphia involved, according to reports, 90,000 operatives in carpet mills and similar establishments. The great strike in the building trades in New York continued throughout May and into June, involving enormous losses. A lockout of the workmen of the National Biscuit Company in Chicago owing to demands for increased wages bade fair to continue for a considerable time and to involve the company's workmen in other cities. Denver and Omaha, after suffering severely for several weeks from strikes by teamsters, restaurant workers, and other classes of wage earners, obtained a settlement of the difficulties. In Bridgeport, Conn., on May 17, an attempt to run street cars after the carmen had struck brought on a dangerous riot, the mayor exposing himself to severe criticism by interfering to protect a rioter from arrest. In Chicago the laundries were closed for a month or more while employers and their help discussed their differences. Early in June a strike of Chicago cooks and waiters in hotels, clubs, and restaurants caused much inconvenience and apprehension. The cotton mills of Lowell, Mass., after having remained closed for nine weeks because their operatives were preparing to strike, opened again on June 1 with a part of the workers in their places. One of the most disquieting developments was in the anthracite coal fields. There the mine operators declined to accept as members of the conciliation board provided by the award of the federal commission representatives chosen by officers of the miners' union, holding that they should have been selected by the individual miners since the operators were not required to recognize the union. A convention of miners was called to meet in Pottsville, Pa., June 15 to consider what action should be taken. The threat of another strike caused a general protest from the public. Its wrongs and losses because of the strike of last year were too severe to leave it in a mood to submit to further injustice of the same sort. According to the wording of the award it seems clear that the mine operators have no justification for the objection raised by them.

Capital Wars on Capital.

Warfare waged on stock exchanges and in legislative bodies or by cutting prices of transportation or of other public service, not infrequently has marked the disputes of powerful corporations or indi-

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viduals. The actual destruction of property by physical violence, however, is a rare exhibition of millionaires' dislike and bitter rivalry. For half a century the poles and wires of the Western Union Telegraph Company and its predecessors have occupied the right of way of the Pennsylvania railway. Some months ago the management of the railway notified the telegraph company to remove its poles and wires along the thousand miles or more of its right of way. The telegraph company took the matter into court. On May 21 a court order was entered permitting the poles and wires to be removed. Immediately special wrecking trains and large

GEORGE J. GOULD.

numbers of workmen were sent out from various cities along the Pennsylvania railway to chop down the poles and destroy the wires. Within thirty-six hours, 40,000 poles and 14,000 miles of wires, it is estimated, were cleared away. From Trenton, N. J., to Pittsburg and along many important branch lines the work of destruction was complete. A million dollars, according to reports, would scarcely cover the loss to the telegraph company, which may also find that it will have to pay the expense of the wrecking crews and the special trains which rendered this notable service. Recently George Gould, who controls the telegraph company, obtained for his great system of western railways an entrance to Pittsburg, which up to that time had bestowed all its enormous freight carrying business upon the Pennsylvania railway. He has obtained also by the purchase of railway properties an outlet to the Atlantic seaboard by way of Baltimore. It is supposed by some that the havoc wrought to Mr Gould's poles and wires was due in part to the resentment felt by President Cassatt of the Pennsylvania system because of the troublesome rivalry which he must face from Mr. Gould's new eastern line. Evidently capitalists lose their tempers sometimes as well as other mortals. Revenge is proverbially sweet; still, the corporation or the mob that destroys valuable property commits an economic crime.

To Cure Silver Fluctuations. Only a few years ago the United States government sent to Europe a commission of distinguished gentlemen for the purpose of bringing about, if possible, an international agreement by which the free coinage of silver at a fixed ratio with gold might be resumed. The European nations listened politely, but would agree to nothing. Since then the battle for the free coinage of silver has been fought out in the United States and lost. Now another commission has been dispatched to Europe by the national government to consider the question of silver. Its object is to secure an agreement under which the gold standard shall be established in all the countries still on a silver basis. The revolution in sentiment in this respect which the last half dozen years have brought is quite extraordinary. The other day Dr. E. Benjamin Andrews, perhaps the most scholarly of the advocates of free silver coinage in the days of the first Bryan campaign, publicly admitted his error. Mexico, which in 1896 was held up as a model of prosperity by Mr. Bryan and his supporters because its finances were on a silver basis, has nearly completed arrangements for adopting the gold standard. Japan has made the gold yen its measure of value. The Philippines, after a sorry time of heavy losses by reason of the rapid decline of silver, has been put on a gold basis by the recent action of Congress. China has asked for international assistance in giving stability to its

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finances. In short, the universal adoption of the gold standard is almost at hand. The great losses due to silver fluctuations have rendered trade with Oriental countries too precarious and the revenues of those countries too insecure for the silver standard to be tolerated longer by them. The solution of the problem presumably will be practically the same everywhere. Silver coins now in existence will continue to circulate at their bullion value until paid in as revenue to the government and sent to the mint, while new issues, kept at a fixed value by a gold reserve, will become the basis of all transactions. The members of the American International Exchange Commission, H. H. Hanna of Indianapolis, Charles A. Conant of New York and Professor J. W. Jenks of Cornell University, sailed for Europe May 21. They and representatives of the government of Mexico will confer with the British, Dutch, French, Russian, and other governments having Oriental colonies, and will report to Congress such recommendations as they deem proper.

Liberalizing Church Views. At the Presbyterian General Assembly in Los Angeles on May 28 there came an impressive ending to the agitation begun fifteen years ago in favor of changing the Westminster confession of faith. Henceforth the church officially sanctions the belief that no one is lost except for his own sins and that children dying in infancy are saved and not damned. Thus Calvinism loses its terrors for those who in the past have feared that to be a Presbyterian was to approve of those abhorrent doctrines. No more convincing showing that they in reality were no part of modern Presbyterianism could have been made than the unanimous vote of the general assembly by which the changes were adopted. This vote was based upon reports from the various Presbyteries, which had voted upon the proposed changes, all approving them by overwhelming majorities except three. The hope is expressed that this action will lead speedily to the union of the Presbyterians, the Cumberland Presbyterians and the United Presbyterians, the two latter being organizations of considerable numerical strength which long have refused to tolerate the doctrines now disavowed by the older church. Whether this shall come about or not, at least the Presbyterians by demonstrating their determination to keep abreast of the modern liberalizing movement in the churches should render their work even more effective henceforth than it has been in the past. Among other notable actions by the general assembly may be mentioned its adoption of a rule forbidding Presbyterian ministers to perform the marriage ceremony for persons who have been divorced for other than scriptural causes. It also strongly urged that uniform and righteous laws governing marriage and divorce be enacted by the commonwealths of the United States.

Ferment in the Balkans. Having thrown large forces of troops into Macedonia the Turkish government has rendered anything like a general revolt impossible, but the desperate tactics of the revolutionists and their sympathizers in Bulgaria make the peaceful institution of reforms practically impossible. The opposition of the Albanians to Christian intervention in their affairs has been rebuked so harshly by Turkish arms that the astonished Moslems practically have submitted. The Christian insurgents, however, continue to commit dynamite outrages and to fight in strong bands. Various reports of invasions by Bulgarians from across the border and of battles with Turkish soldiers have come from Macedonia recently, including a shocking story of a massacre of the inhabitants of the village of Smerdash by Bashi-Bazouks, or irregular Turkish troops. In the main the Turkish government has received great benefit from the dastardly tactics adopted by many revolutionists. The policy of destroying with bombs the lives of innocent people, particularly foreigners, in order to goad the Turks into organizing massacres by way of reprisal and thus provoking foreign interference, is too barbarous to permit of its advocates being mistaken for patriots. Indeed, the Turks, who are certainly a bad lot, get a fine appearance of virtue by comparison with some of the Bulgarian conspirators. It is a great pity that the name of liberty should be smirched by bandits and assassins. Doubtless they have suffered bitter wrongs, but their refusal to accept the aid which Russia and Austria have brought them in the shape

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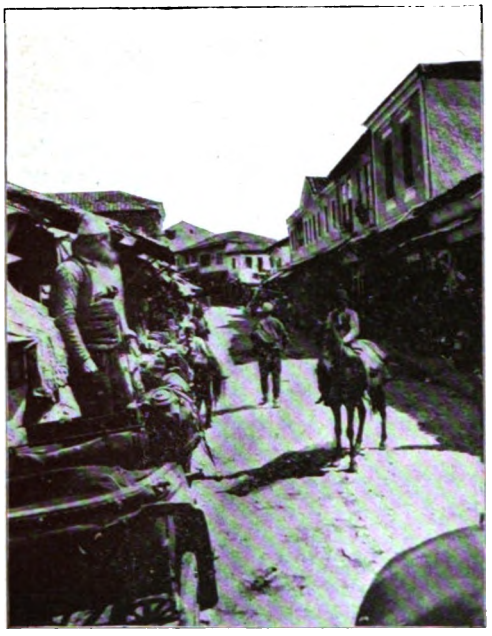

THE MAIN STREET OF USKUB, MACEDONIA.

of governmental reforms wrung from the Sultan and their fiendish acts at Salonica and elsewhere do not indicate that they are entitled to any great amount of sympathy. It is the wish of the agitators to make Macedonia a part of Bulgaria. Macedonia contains about 900,000 Turks and Albanians, 800,000 Bulgarians, 650,000 Greeks, 200,000 Servians and 100,000 Jews. Some of the Bulgarians belong to the orthodox church, of which the Greek patriarch of Constantinople is the head, and these are mainly in sympathy with the Greeks, abhorring the excommunicated Bulgarians who are followers of the Bulgarian exarch at Sofia. It is these latter and their sympathizers in Bulgaria who now are fighting the Turks. The watchword of the Greeks and the orthodox Bulgarians is "Macedonia for the Macedonians"—not for the Bulgarians. Probably their cause is better than that of the insurgents, though they do not throw bombs in support of it. (For other illustrations see frontispiece.)

Serious Unrest in Croatia.

When in 1848 Hungary sought to obtain its freedom from Austria and establish an independent government, Jellachich, Ban of Croatia, marched with an army of his countrymen to assist in overthrowing the forces of Kossuth. So the Croatians, on the anniversary of Jellachich's death, May 20, chose to show their hatred for the Hungarian government by rioting in the streets of Agram. The police charged the mobs with sabers and wounded many. Hundreds were also thrown into prison and a large force of troops was sent by the government to occupy the city. Widespread dissatisfaction is reported to exist among the Croatians, much anxiety being caused not only in Budapest but in Vienna by the attitude of the people. Count Khun Hedervary, the Ban of Croatia, is bitterly disliked by the masses, being regarded as tyrannical and unjust. Great poverty among the peasants and attempts by the Hungarian authorities to force the Magyar language and Magyar institutions upon them are among the causes of discontent. Unjust taxation is another grievance. It is asserted that the members of the Croatian Diet are creatures of the Hungarian government instead of being real representatives of the people, only about three per cent. of whom are permitted to vote. As an example of the great difficulties attending the governing of Austria-

THE MARKET PLACE OF USKUB, MACEDONIA.
As is seen, it is occupied by soldiers and the vendors are conspicuous by their absence.

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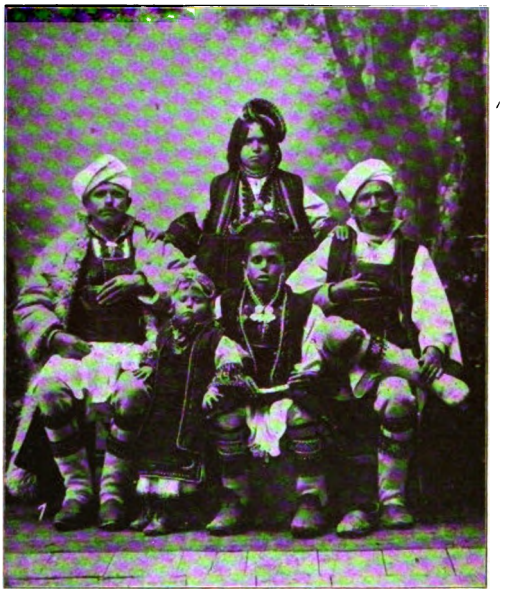
Hungary, with its many hostile elements, this Croatian disturbance is particularly instructive. It is more important as a symptom than as a mere demonstration of hostility to the established order. A singular result of the riots at Agram was the outbreak of anti-Austrian feeling in various cities of Lombardy, where Austrian rule in former years is still remembered. A large body of students in Milan burned an Austrian flag and shouted "Down with Austria!" came into collision with the police and troops were called out to assist in restoring order.

Emerson and His Message.

Though the centenary of Emerson's birth fell on May 25 and various notable meetings were held at that time in Boston and elsewhere in commemoration of the teachings of that kindly and inspiring philosopher, the present month is to see a further celebration of his work and an appreciation of his character. A series of lectures in Boston and Concord and meetings devoted to reminiscences of Emerson will add to the testimony demonstrating his influence upon thoughtful men and women. Emerson does little for mankind in the mass. He is a builder of character by slow and careful processes. Furthermore, he is an individualist. He blows no trumpets to summon men to united action. He takes one man at a time and shows him how worthy he is or can become and how desirable a place is the world in which he lives. In this day of organization Emerson would feel somewhat out of place. He would not have taken kindly even to the organization of a Benevolent Order of Philosophers. His message was to the individual; perhaps that is why he is neglected in this day. It is a pity that he is neglected, since he teaches optimism and self-reliance and making the most of things. Every American ought to read Emerson now and then in order to grow less discontented and to stop regretting that he is not a millionaire or something equally uncomfortable and unnecessary. (See page 885.)

Colombia and the Canal.

The Colombian Congress, elected for the purpose of considering the Panama canal treaty with the United States, was called to meet in Bogota June 20.



AN ALBANIAN FAMILY.

The outlook for the ratification of the treaty seemed decidedly dubious earlier in the month. It has dawned upon influential Colombians that the $40,000,000 which the United States has agreed to pay to the French Canal Company for its concession and other valuable property possibly may be obtained instead by their bankrupt nation or by the patriots who misgovern it. When, in 1898, on the expiration of the original grant to the canal company, President Saclamente extended it for seven years on payment of $1,000,000, he probably had the right to make such extension under the Colombian constitution. However, it has still to be ratified by the national Congress, which did not meet from that time until the present session. At best the grant has but two more years to run. If, therefore, the Colombian Congress should refuse to ratify the extension or should postpone for two years ratification of the treaty with the United States, it is argued by thrifty patriots of the isthmus, all payments by the latter country might be made to Colombia, and nothing to the French company. Colombia is in desperate financial straits, due to its internal wars and the flood of nearly worthless paper money which it has issued. Gold is at an almost incredible premium, the interest on the national debt has not

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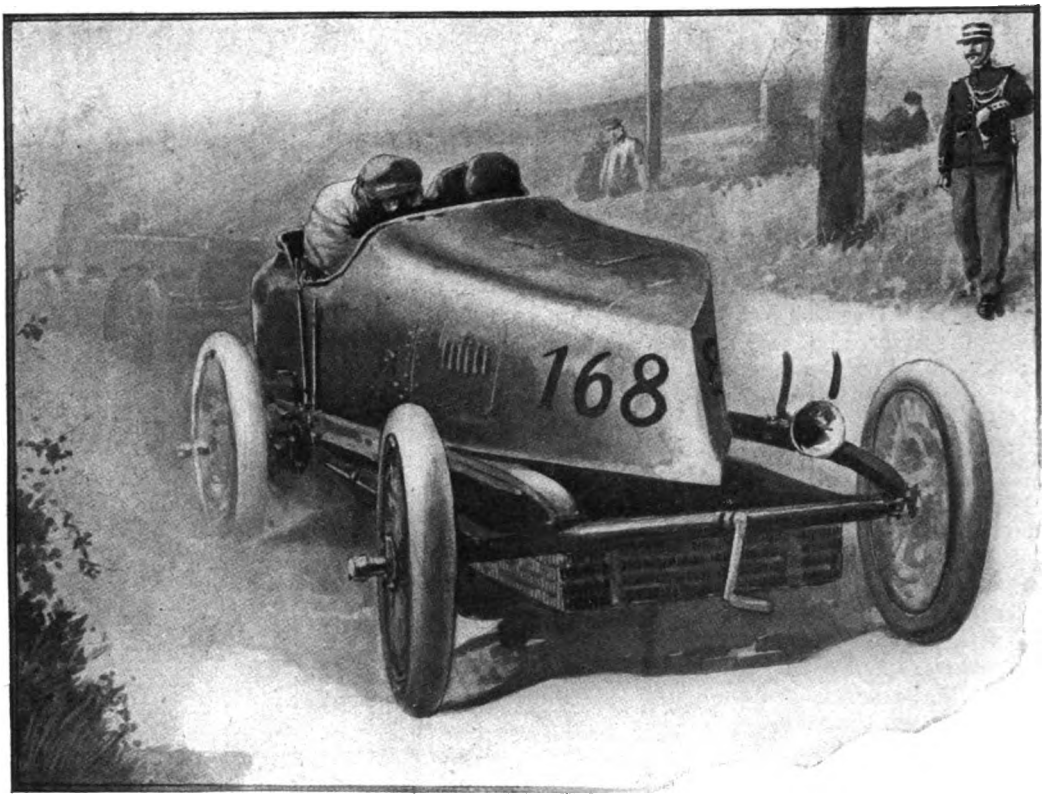

THE AUTOMOBILE IN THE LEAD WHEN THE PARIS-MADRID RACE WAS DISCONTINUED.

been paid for several years and the industries are very largely ruined by the continuous fighting. President Marroquin is reported to be in favor of prompt ratification of the canal treaty, which action would give Colombia $10,000,000 in gold at once. There are reports, though they are denied, that Colombia demands $12,000,000 from the canal company for ratifying the treaty. It may be supposed that the terms of the present treaty will be accepted by the Colombian Congress in case it is satisfied that no better ones are to be had and not otherwise.

Deadly Automobile Racing. France, where the huge racing automobiles are made, has had much experience with long distance races run with those ponderous machines. Manufacturers of automobiles are the leading spirits in bringing about these tests of speed and skill. On Sunday, May 24, the first stage of a race from Versailles to Madrid was entered upon by the drivers of 314 automobiles. One hundred and eleven of them arrived at Bordeaux, the end of the stage, having traveled much of the way at a speed greater than that of the fastest express train. During the race six persons were killed and twice as many more were seriously injured. This shocking result of the reckless adventure caused the French and Spanish governments immediately to stop further racing. So horrible were the details of the slaughter that many think automobile racing will permanently cease in France and perhaps in all Continental countries. Indeed, an agitation has been begun in favor of forbidding French manufacturers to deliver to purchasers automobiles capable of attaining a speed of more than twenty-two miles an hour. Since the enormous speed at which many automobiles are capable of traveling renders them exceedingly dangerous not only to the public but to their own drivers and since there is no use in having machines capable of moving with unlawful velocity, it seems desirable to add to the safety of people on the highways

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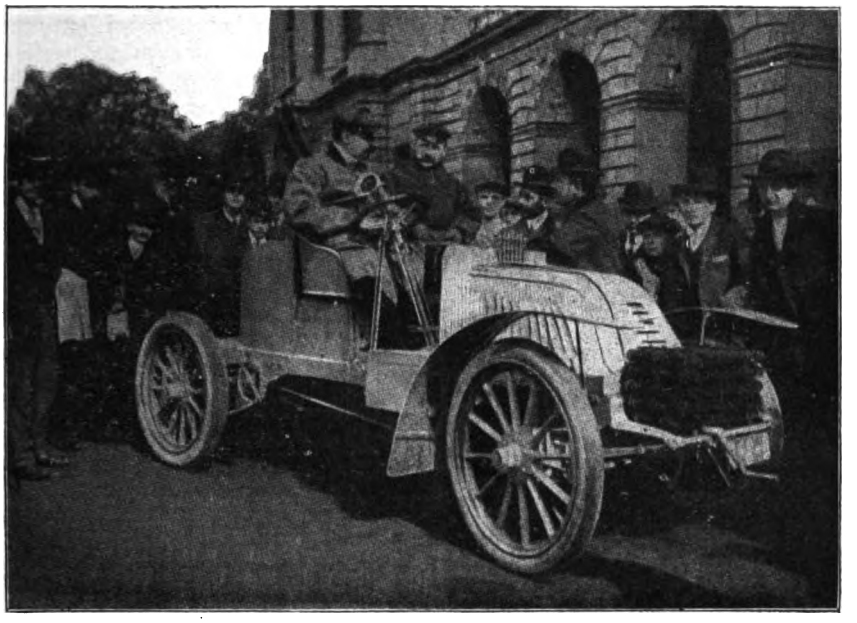

THE PARIS-MADRID RACE; M. DE PENHA-LONGA, ONE OF THE CONTESTANTS.

by prohibiting the manufacture of high speed vehicles. That the automobile is a useful and harmless machine when properly driven is, of course, certain. For racing on the highways it is about as dangerous, from any sane point of view, as an unchained rogue elephant. Some French scientists insist that the intoxication of automobiling at high speed should be recognized as a disease, the chronic sufferer from it, in their view, having no proper control over his appetite for furious speeding. Better than confining him in an asylum for automobile inebriates or shooting him as he flies, as a titled Englishman has lately advocated, would it be to take

THE PARIS-MADRID RACE; COUNT RECOPE, ONE OF THE CONTESTANTS.

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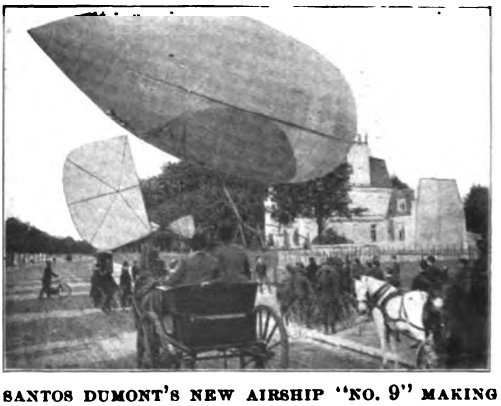
SYBIL SANDERSON.
The American opera singer who died in Paris, May 17.

his racing machine away from him and leave him to jog along at a respectable speed in an automobile of moderate power.

American Women in England.

Because it gave expression publicly to criticisms undoubtedly common in English society upon American women who marry titles, an article recently published in the London *Daily Express* attracted an unusual amount of attention. The writer of the article charged that some American women who are adorned with British titles have introduced into England "the apelike decadence of New York society, where extravagance is distinction, display is nobility, and notoriety is the ideal at which to aim." Neglect of her children, of her household, of her husband, was also charged against the American woman. Her actions were declared to be "those of a creature newly civilized, yielding to whim or caprice in dress," prodigal in money matters and setting a bad example to others of lower station. As an expression of opinion by an anonymous writer these criticisms amount to nothing. However, as a retailer of current slanders this person's words are worthy of attention. A spirited reply to them by a writer who says she is an American and the wife of a British peer contains the following: "Is not all this crusade against American women to be traced to the petty jealousies of your own women, who, knowing their inferiority in intellect and looks, leave no stone unturned to sneer at us, to make our lives as uncomfortable as possible, and to show us, when they can safely do so, how much they regard themselves as our superiors?" The proper answer to this question very likely is, "Yes." Yet this second writer may be going too far when she says: "If it had not been for us your women would still be the dowdy, frowsy, badly dressed, downtrodden housekeepers of former days." Though American women may be misrepresented by some of their jealous—possibly dowdy—British sisters, at least it is a comforting thought that they seem entirely capable of wielding a cudgel vigorously in their own defense. American women can say truthfully that they have no reason to shrink from fair comparison with the women of other nations and that ordinarily those who marry titles endow their husbands with other valuable possessions besides wealth. One could wish that they might be more generally accepted at their true worth amid foreign surroundings than is actually the case. Still, that is one of the penalties of marrying a foreign title.



SANTOS DUMONT'S NEW AIRSHIP "NO. 9" MAKING ITS FIRST SUCCESSFUL TRIP OVER PARIS.
He also made a very successful ascent June 13.

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The World In General.

The Acousticon.

BY

A. L. GRIFFITH.

AFTER ten years of diligent study and experimenting, Mr. Miller Reese Hutchison, a young electrical engineer of New York City, has perfected an instrument whereby all deaf persons, except those afflicted with absolute paralysis of the auditory nerve, can hear with ease even ordinary conversation and soft music. Last year, the inventor went to England and showed in several institutions for the deaf and dumb in London, what his instrument could do. Queen Alexandra saw one of the tests, and asked Mr. Hutchison to give another at Buckingham palace. He did so and Her Majesty bestowed on him a gold medal. In March, he gave a demonstration of the effectiveness of the "Acousticon" the subjects of this test being six pupils of the New York Institute for the Instruction of the Deaf and Dumb. Subsequently these pupils were taken to an opera, and by the aid of the "Acousticon," they heard all the music and handclapping. They were particularly impressed and delighted with the voice of Mme. Sembrich. With pupils of the same institution Mr. Hutchison gave an exhibition in his laboratory, among those present being the Duke of Newcastle. The test was entirely successful. Three children, deaf, dumb, and blind, heard Sousa's marches played on a piano and then heard a phonograph repeat the sounds. The inventor has made many other tests with equal success. In some cases, congenital deaf mutes were made to hear sounds for the first time in their lives. The "Acousticon" serves the ear much as glasses do the eye.

The "Acousticon" is an adjustable hearing instrument which can be fitted to any degree or peculiarity of deafness. It consists of a receiver, an earpiece, and a small electric battery. It is less conspicuous than any other form of hearing instrument, no part of it actually appearing in sight except the earpiece, which may be

M. R. HUTCHISON.
Inventor of the "Acousticon."

covered with the hand. The battery, which is but little larger than a match box, is carried in the waistcoat pocket or chatelaine; the receiver is worn under the coat or in the folds of the dress; the earpiece is so small that in use it merely appears as though the person were holding the hand

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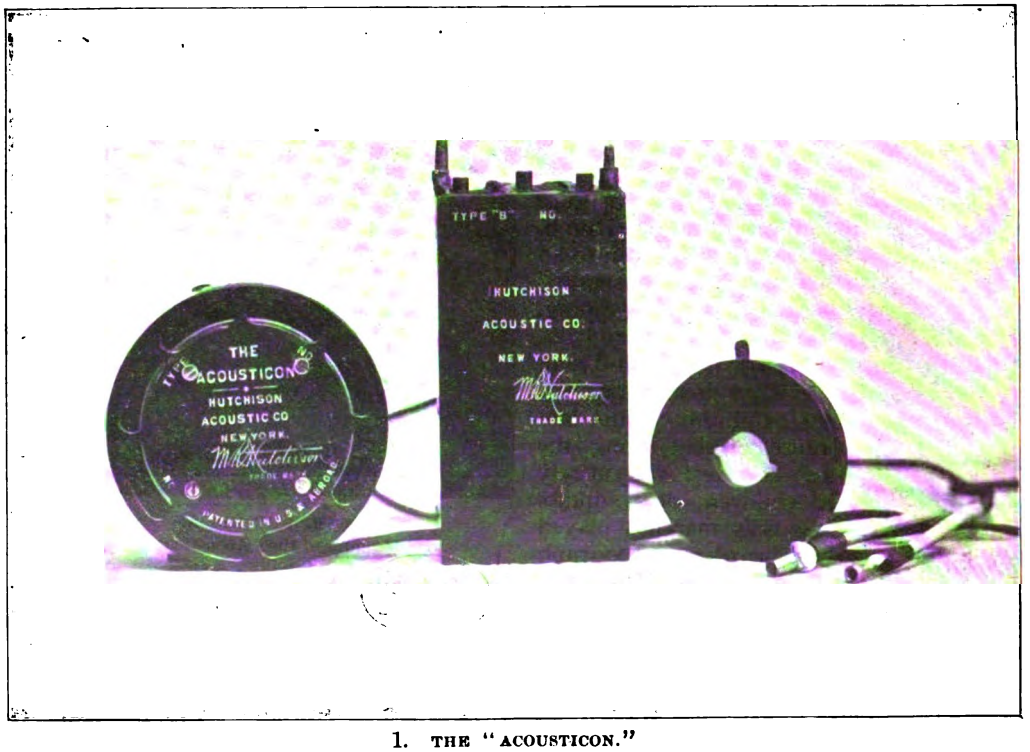
to the ear as many people are in the habit of doing under ordinary circumstances.

The voice as heard through the "Acousticon" does not sound loud. Ordinary conversational tones can be heard through it with more distinctness than an equal amount of shouting. The penetrating quality of the "Acousticon" sound wave apparently disregards the mechanism of the outer ear and affects the inner ear directly.

To a considerable extent the "Acousticon" takes the place of the outer hearing apparatus provided by Nature. Many persons who have lost their ear drums through accident or disease, and some even who have had the middle ear bones removed have still been able to hear with the "Acousticon." This is due to the relation borne to the mechanics of the ear by those of the "Acousticon." The invention may be said to be an artificial ear, since it performs entirely the functions of the ear.

There are three divisions of the ear: the external, the middle, and the inner ear. That part which is visible is known as the external ear. This extends into the head as far as the ear drum, beyond which is the middle ear, which is a cavity filled with air. In this air-chamber are the ossicles, a chain of three small bones, connected with one another, extending across to the entrance of the inner ear. The first of these bones is attached to the ear drum; the other end of the chain to a membrane in the entrance of the inner ear. This entrance is called the oval window. Beyond this window is a column of liquid in which float three thousand nerve terminals, which on their route to the brain become bound together in a cable, as it were, and this cable is the auditory nerve. When sound reaches this column of liquid it is agitated thereby, correspondingly as the sound is light or heavy, soft or harsh, etc., whereupon each of the three thousand nerve terminals selects its proper sound and conveys it over the auditory nerve to the brain. It is a well-known fact that sound vibrations will not pass from a gas to a liquid without the assistance of some intervening medium of translation. The atmosphere through which we talk is a gas; the inner ear is filled with liquid. The function of the ear drum and the small bones is to take up sound waves from the air and translate



1. THE "ACOUSTICON."
Transmitter. Battery. Earpiece.

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them so that they may be received by the inner ear liquid. Sound reaches the ear drum from the air and causes the drum to vibrate. The vibrations are communicated to the chain of small bones through which they travel across to the oval window, which pulsates and communicates the vibrations to the liquid of the inner ear beyond. The vibrations thus reach the liquid through a solid and are then transmittable to the auditory nerve and so on to the brain.

The function of the "Acousticon" is precisely similar to that of the middle ear. It collects the sound from the atmosphere and fits it to be received by the inner ear directly. The sound acts upon the diaphragm of the receiver, the vibrations of which are reproduced through the agency of the electric current by the diaphragm in the earpiece. The latter pressed tightly against the ear transmits its vibrations through the intervening bones directly to the inner ear liquid.

Thus the "acousticon" is able to disregard structural derangement of the outer ear, even where the ear drum is perforated, or the bones of the middle ear absent. At the same time, the "acousticon" is a sound producer and where the middle ear is even partly in working order the small bones are thereby compelled to render their quota of service in making their owner hear.

The "Acousticon" tends to improve the hearing. When people become partly deaf it is natural that they should enter less and less into ordinary conversation. In consequence, the mechanism of the ear becomes enervated and the hearing grows worse. Lack of exercise will soon render useless any part of the human body. The "Acousticon" by its peculiar action keeps every part of the ear thoroughly exercised. It not only prevents the hearing from growing worse, but the constant beneficial stimulation sends new blood and vitality to the parts and helps them to regain that healthy condition which is necessary to perfect hearing.

Physicians everywhere have recognized the need of a scientific instrument for the relief of deafness. They have discouraged the use of ear trumpets generally, knowing well the danger involved by their use. The invention of the "Acousticon" was therefore welcomed by the medical profession because, at last, it was an instrument with as many adjustments for the ear as there are lenses for the eye, something which the aurist may prescribe with as much accuracy as the oculist prescribes spectacles.

Another instrument invented by Mr. Hutchison is the "Massacon," which is a phono-electric massage, and is adapted more especially to treating those cases of deafness resulting from catarrhal troubles. At least 65 per cent. of the deafness is due to catarrh. Many of these cases become complicated with secondary troubles. Where the deafness is due to catarrh only,

2. "ACOUSTICON" IN USE, AS DESCRIBED IN THE TEXT.

it may be relieved, and in many cases entirely cured by the use of the "Massacon."

For the sake of a full understanding of the illustrations of the "Acousticon," the following detailed description is appended:

Picture No. 1. The "Acousticon." Beginning on the left the following is the order of the pieces: Receiver, battery, earpiece.

Transmitter: Diameter 3¼ inches; thickness (front to back) one inch; weight, 4 ounces.

Battery: Weight (charged), about 6½ ounces; height, 3½ inches; width, 2¼ inches; thickness, ¾ inch.

Earpiece: Weight, 4 ounces; diameter,

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3. "ACOUSTICON" IN USE, AS DESCRIBED IN THE TEXT.

2¼ inches; thickness (front to back), ¾ inch. Weight, with handle attached, 5½ ounces.

Total weight of "Acousticon," if used with a handle attached to earpiece, 16 ounces; if used without handle attached to earpiece, 14½ ounces.

The cords shown at the right of earpiece are to be pushed down on the plugs shown at the right and left of the battery (top). This connection cannot be made wrongly, as the two caps that fit over the plugs on the battery are of different sizes and will fit only the plug for which each is intended.

Picture No. 2. Method of wearing the "Acousticon." This shows the battery and transmitter in place; the battery in the lower waistcoat pocket; the transmitter attached, by a small clamp at the back, to the upper waistcoat pocket; the earpiece held to the ear. The battery and transmitter can be concealed underneath a woman's waist, being attached to the tops of the stays.

Picture No. 3. Battery and transmitter concealed; earpiece to the ear.

In all cases, naturally, the transmitter must be so disposed that the sounds, whether general conversation, lecture, sermon, theatrical performance, etc., can reach it. This part of the instrument collects all sounds, properly regulates them, and transfers them to the earpiece, which projects them to the middle ear, disregarding the outer ear if it is incapable of receiving the sound; otherwise, the action of the "Acousticon" is beneficial as it exercises gently and thoroughly those muscles, nerves, etc., which have become inactive.

In addition to collecting sounds properly the transmitter regulates them. Thus the inarticulate words or sounds are intensified and distinctly articulated, while the louder, harsher sounds are softened, though perfectly articulated, and made ready to be received from the earpiece by the auditory nerve. A whisper sounds more intense and clear than a shout, and the ordinary conversational tone is the proper medium.

The battery is a semi-dry storage, and can be recharged indefinitely, either by direct or alternating current; most conveniently by the regulation-size (16 c. p.) lamp, commercial voltage, in one's home or office; also either by primary or secondary cells.

The "Massacon" is another instrument invented by Mr. Hutchison for massaging the middle ear and adjacent parts. It is not an instrument to be carried on the person, like the "Acousticon." It is to be used at stated intervals, usually night and morning, preferably three times daily. Many have so used it and have greatly benefited thereby.

The "Massacon" is for treating deafness by means of vibration. The purpose of the "Massacon" is to massage the small bones so that they may be revitalized and restored to vigor, sufficient to throw off the effects of the catarrh and to enable them to resume their function of transmitting sound to the inner ear.

In the earpiece of the instrument is a diaphragm operated by an electro-magnet. This diaphragm may be made to vibrate with any degree of rapidity or intensity. Its vibrations are controlled by switches. When the earpiece is held against the external ear, the vibrations are transmitted directly to the bones of the middle ear. The instrument can be adjusted with such nicety as to produce a movement in the small bones exactly equal to that maintained by them when normally transmitting sound waves.

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BOOKS

In Summer Fiction.

BY

WALLACE RICE.

TWO logical courses lie open to one who seeks to guide the general reader toward the books of fiction he would like to read during the summer: Either to give a tolerably complete list of all the books of the sort published, with comment enough to lead the potential reader whither he would go; or to select a few of the best novels and romances and speak of them at length. The latter, though by far the easier and—to the critic—the more satisfactory course, is hardly likely to satisfy the popular demand. For the first requisite in a work of fiction is that it shall be interesting and entertaining, and there are quite as many interests as there are readers. Many a man of the finest literary instincts turns to stories of mystery in the summer months for relief from thought and appreciation, and rates next in the scale those rattling romances after the manner of "The Prisoner of Zenda," which are far more common than they used to be. Others, whose time is usually spent in mercantile pursuits, prefer the more serious historical novels, with a feeling that instruction is here combined with amusement—an inheritance from the Puritan hatred of wasted time when eternity is staring one in the face.

It is a serious matter to attempt in any brief space to characterize even the best of the stories published within the last three months with special reference to summer reading. Their number is enormous and, upon the whole, their standard high. Almost any book brought out by the better class of publishers will be found to have merit of some kind or another. Of the different sorts of novels that have seen the light of day since February, by far the largest class is made up of novels dealing with modern society—novels of manners, so to speak. A distinctly modern class of these may be subdivided off as social studies, the reflection in fiction of the popularity of the science known as sociology, and informing, sometimes even enlightening—and, sometimes, enlightening at the expense of their legitimate interest as novels. There is also an increasing number of books, especially noticeable this year, of stories that deal with clergymen of one sort and another—a further concession to the spirit of puritanism just spoken of. There seems to be a falling off of historical romances of the lighter and frothier sort, and of stories relating to the earlier chapters of American history, with a little more stress, perhaps, laid upon stories of the Civil War. But of joyous books, open and unshamedly written for purposes of amusement, free from scientific lecturing as well as unflavored by the pulpit, there is a dearth. And yet these books, few in number as they are, are best fitted for summer reading, if summer is to be regarded as a holiday season.

No book of this rare class deserves better of the public than Miss Jean Webster's "When Patty Went to College." It is, of course, a book written by a girl and about girls; but what man can fail to be engrossed in such a topic when all the girls are as nice and bright and pretty and cultivated as Miss Webster's girls? Next is a book by Mr. Edward W. Townsend, of "Chimmie Fadden" fame, called "A Summer in New York." It is in the form of letters written to her western home by

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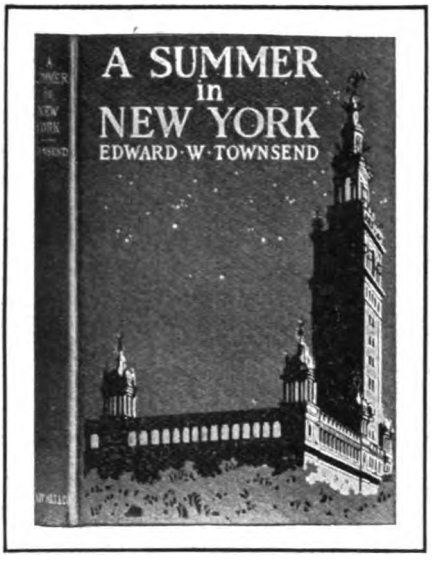
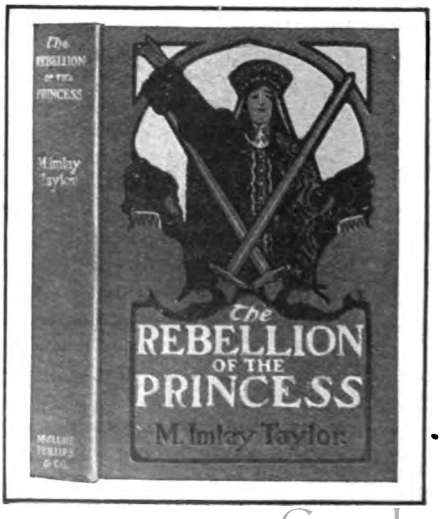


a youthful heiress who visited her rich and well placed kinsfolk in the metropolis for the first time and was courted and fêted as only such a girl can be when she is attractive in every way known to civilization. For those who do not care much about the set in New York which is above giving dinners to poodles and horses and is still as frivolous as the very rich are likely to be everywhere, it may be said that there is just a suspicion of satire in the book from which they can derive a great deal of satisfaction. Much the same sort of recreation can be had from "Brewster's Millions," by Mr. Richard Greaves, telling of the difficulties a young man had in spending a million dollars in a single year without having anything to show for it, when there was a prospect of a great many more millions in the background if he were successful.

Of detective or "mystery" stories, which were never written with any intention deeper than to amuse, there are several worth taking away on one's travels. The work of Mrs. Rohlfs (Anna Katharine Green) carries its own commendation with it in this regard, and "The Filigree Ball" is in some respects the most mysterious of her writings. It is not quite as convincing as others of them, but it can be warranted to keep the eyes riveted upon its pages throughout. Not so mysterious, but the work of Mr. Robert Neilson Stephens, whose historical romances have invariably been well done, is "The Mystery of Murray Davenport," with a most unusual theme and just a suspicion of crime thrown in for good measure. Altogether out of the common run, with a Jane Eyre modernized for heroine and a whopping villain, is Miss Frances Powell's "The House on the Hudson." The reader is made aware in the earliest chapters that the heroine knows just how to deliver a knockout blow, and the suspense in which he is kept until the blow is duly delivered to the proper person at the proper time is as skillful a bit of suspense as can be asked for. Nor is the work devoid of literary flavor.

Mystery and an odor of the supernatural lingers around Mr. Vance Thompson's "Spinners of Life," the title suggestive of the fate that overhangs his principal characters. Mr. Thompson inadvertently makes his heroine considerably older than his protagonist, but the story is wholly readable. Mr. Fergus Hume, the author's name synonymous with tales of the sort, writes "A Coin of Edward VII.," with the old-fashioned murder at the beginning, where it belongs, and suspicion and all uncharitableness everywhere. "At the Time Appointed" is by Mr. A. Maynard Barbour, who has written another book of this sort, and has a case of suspended personality to add to its other bits of attraction. There is crime and sensationalism back of Mr. Max Pemberton's "The Gold Wolf," and it has a man of enormous wealth, always popular with readers, to make it more interesting. And here, too, is a full-fledged love affair, better told than most that enter into such stories.



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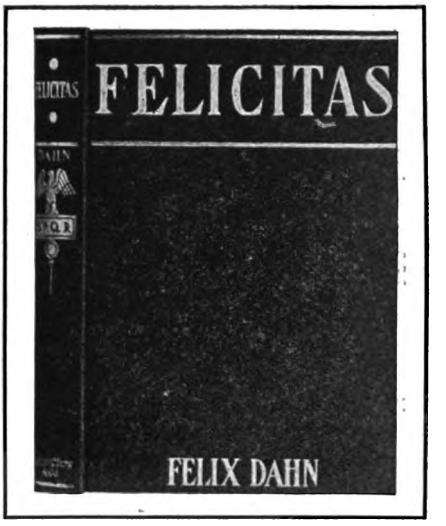
For a romance with the courage of its convictions, in which a supposititious European state furnishes the princely blood and an American multi-millionaire both the money and the heroine, his daughter, "The Traitors" by Mr. E. Phillips Oppenheim, will furnish a satisfactory hour or three. Of somewhat similar sort is Mr. H. C. Bailey's "Karl of Erbach: A Tale of Lichtenstein and Solgau." A bit of psychological study differentiates it from most of its class. An openly joyous book, dealing with court jesters in the reign of the Francis whom Balzac's "Contes Drolatiques" commemorate, is "Under the Rose," by Mr. Frederic S. Isham. A sadly mixed matrimonial venture adds zest to nearly every chapter. Cut-and-thrust, sword-and-mask, and lovely women and stalwart figures of men parade through "The Grey Cloak" of Mr. Harold MacGrath, its scenes laid in the time of Mazarin, with all the possibilities that implies. A French nobleman of the time of Louis XIV. exiles himself to Moscow in time to escape an adverse fate at home, and carries with him the full savor of French romance in Miss M. Imlay Taylor's "The Rebellion of the Princess." It is an exciting work, full of Russian brutality and French finesse.

By way of a volume valuable on every account, historically accurate, full of exciting episode and event, told with fine literary skill, and containing an excellent character study of a pathetic and heroic figure, "Roderick Taliaferro"—pronounced

FROM "THE WARD OF KING CANUTE."



as if spelled "Tolliver"—may be commended. It tells of the unhappy expedition of Maximilian to Mexico and has been done by Mr. George Cram Cook, who here gives promise of really great things. Also dealing with Mexico, but with the Mexico of the Conquestadores, is Mr. Francis Newton Thorpe's "The Spoils of Empire." More than half the story has its scene laid in Spain, and the Inquisition, almost forgotten in modern English literature, plays its part with all due horror. A finely written and beautifully presented volume is Miss Ottilie A. Liljencrantz's "The Ward of King Canute," a worthy sucessor to her "The Thrall of Leif the Lucky" last year. The time is of the struggles between Saxon and Dane, Canute and Edmund Ironsides, with a delightful young girl personating her brother for its heroine. The second of Mrs. Mary J. Safford's translations from the German of Felix Dahn is "Felicitas," and it has to do with the conquest of the outlying Roman empire by the Germans. It is unusually well told, and historically exact in its reproduction of a period little known. Mr. H. Rider Haggard is not in the least like himself in "The Pearl Maiden: A Tale of the Fall of Jerusalem." The heroine is of the sect of the Essenes and her two lovers are respectively Jewish and Roman. Josephus has been studied to advantage, but the author's earlier manner is much to be preferred.

Short stories are not beloved of publishers in these days, the magazines seem-

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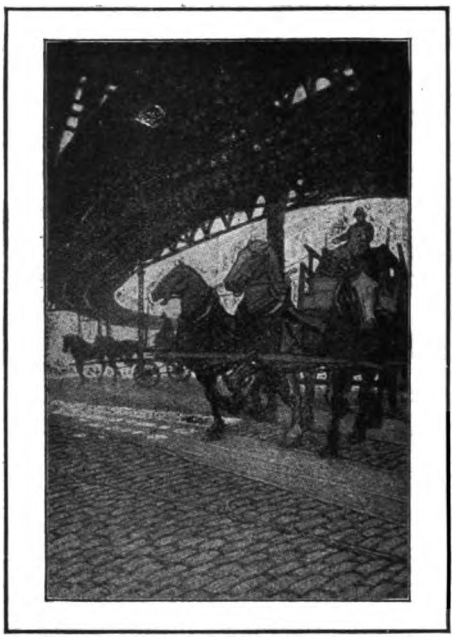

FROM "HORSES NINE."

ing to fill the place of printed volumes from a single hand. Yet the short story and novelette both are so well adapted to reading in hot weather, when continued effort is undesirable, that many volumes deserve well of the reading public in general. First must go the late Bret Harte's "Trent's Trust," a collection of seven stories in Harte's inimitable manner, the first of them reintroducing such ancient friends as Jack Hamlin and Colonel Starbottle. Of these the first is a novelette, and all sustain the reputation gained and maintained by their lamented author. Next these must go Mr. Henry James's "The Better Sort," in which may be found a series of tales which are reminiscent of the earlier day when Mr. James was widely read and by a different class of readers. They are less involved in style, less remote in interest, and more comprehensible in theme to the many than anything appearing from that gifted pen in years. Mr. Joseph Conrad, already the conqueror of an enviable place in letters, has done nothing better than the three stories dealing with either the sea or a sailor which make up "Youth, and Two Other Stories." They come close to being great literature. Of lighter strain, yet thoroughly well told are "The Turquoise Cup" and "The Desert" of Mr. Arthur Cosslett Smith, published in a single handsome little volume. His "The Monk and the Dancer" is not yet forgotten.

MISS JOSEPHINE DASKAM DODGE.

"LOVEY MARY."

Mrs. Freeman, who was Miss Mary E. Wilkins, has two collections of tales: "Six Trees," in which the influence of that "silent race" upon human beings is brought out, and "The Wind in the Rose Bush, and Other Tales of the Supernatural," an unusually clever collection of the sort of story that makes one look behind on going to bed. "Horses Nine," as many episodes in which the nature of the animal is interpreted by a great lover of him and his kind, Mr. Sewell Ford, is a book with a special appeal and certain of acceptance. That sterling writer, altogether too little known, Mr. Louis Becke, has a volume entitled "The Strange Adventure of James Shervinton, and Other Stories," the first of the nine a novelette and the rest short stories. As in previous works, the South Sea islands and their inhabitants, native

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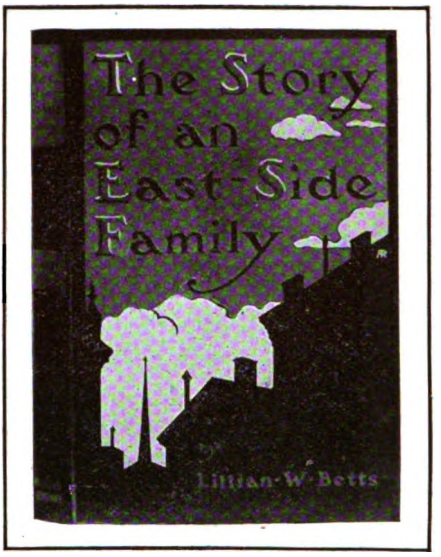
and acquired, are described by one who knows them as no one else in the world ever has. It is a curious collection of earlier and later work that Mr. Israel Zangwill has marshaled in "The Grey Wig: Stories and Novelettes." It fairly synopsizes his writings and the solemnity which is peculiarly his is present with little relieving humor. Miss Josephine Dodge Daskam has a few ideas of her own about the sort of people who should intermarry in riper life, and these she exploits in "Middle Aged Love Stories." The men are rather evidently finding the sort of woman which can be called "comfortable," and the women are for the most part gratifying the maternal instinct. Two little books of unusual merit have appeared, "Philosophy Four" by Mr. Owen Wister, and "Man Overboard" by Mr. F. Marion Crawford. The former is an intensely humorous study of types in Harvard College, the latter a well wrought tale of the sea, with a romance and a ghost playing equal parts.

Under the general group of social studies may be gathered a number of books of widely varying purpose and treatment. George Ade's "People You Know" has in its component "fables in slang" some carefully drawn portraits of American types of every sort above the lower middle classes, told in that picturesque and expressive dialect with which the American

J. J. BELL.



nation is enriching the English language. "Lovey Mary," by Mrs. Cale Young Rice, until lately Miss Alice Hegan, is another tale of the "cabbage patch" in Louisville, illustrating the vastly more beneficent charity of the poor toward one another, and telling of a life which regarded the almost pitiful existence of a factory girl as an ideal. "Wee MacGreegor" is the work of Mr. J. J. Bell, whose two little books of clever verse for children should have made him better known. He has drawn a series of portraits of an artisan's family in Glasgow, the small son playing the major part, and drawn it with a sympathy and fidelity as clever as it is amusing. It is one of the few recent books the dialect in which is wholly forgivable. Closely akin to it in spirit, though miles away in treatment, is "Elizabeth's Children," by an anonymous hand, in which the antics of two little boys, half English and half French, are depicted, while they are enjoying the hospitality of an English bachelor, a former admirer of their English mother. A pretty love story adds to the interest, if not to the humor, of the narrative. In "The Autobiography of a Beggar," Mr. I. K. Friedman has made a class of men repulsive to American thought not only live, but live with the reader's full sympathy. The book is really amusing, particularly to men, and proves its author's right to the title of humorist.

Without the element of humor which enters so strongly into the books just de-

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MRS. HUMPHREY WARD.

scribed, a class of fiction with a definite purpose, to acquaint the well-to-do with the realities of a world they have little access to in real life, make their appearance. First among these is Mr. Ernest A. Vizetelly's translation of the late Emile Zola's "Vérité," here called "Truth." It is the third, and last, of the four which were to bear the name of "The Four Evangelists." Here the Dreyfus case finds fictional exploitation, and shows in forceful and memorable language the differences between the clerical and secularist elements in contemporary France. A tale of the American slums is told with a fidelity almost caustic in Miss Lillian W. Bett's

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"The Story of an East-Side Family." The fortunes—or misfortunes—of an orphaned lad and the little daughter of a drunken mother are followed through marriage and the bringing up of a large family of children, with a knowledge that bears conviction with it. Though not fully literary, the book is important. The writer on the utterly submerged of civilization who chooses to be known as Josiah Flynt has made something altogether out of the common of "The Rise of Ruderick Clowd." His hero is a professional criminal, beginning his career with minor thefts, going to the reform school in consequence, rising into the stage of burglary and bank robbery, serving a term in the penitentiary as a result, and finally, after his nerve is gone, becoming a quiet and respectable citizen. There is an absence of the conventional morality based so largely on property rights that is little less than illuminating—it being made plain that there is still a morality peculiar to criminals, by which they are as rigorously governed as any other class in the community.

Of the books in which the clergy are introduced, "Ronald Carnaquay," done by Mr. Bradley Gilman, has value because of its placing in immediate contrast two distinct types of the modern cleric, he from whom the book is named being a man of parts, with an eye always out for the main chance on this earth, while his antitype is set on performance of duty in an honest manner and without the gifts of mind and body that make the other popular. The book is fully informed and pleasantly optimistic. Mrs. Hopkins (once Miss Pauline Bradford Mackie) writes "The Voice in the Desert," laying her scene in one of the little settlements of the far Southwest and bringing there a clergyman of worth, though rather impractical, his charming wife, an eastern man with whom she had been in love in girlhood, and several others. Not distinctly clerical, the story opens the eyes of its readers to the influence of a really good man. An unusual type of priest comes into Mr. James Weber Linn's "The Chameleon," not as the leading person of the tale, but almost as the villain. The entire book concerns itself, however, with an abstruse question of casuistry; how far a man is spiritually responsible for habits of exaggeration in conversation, Mr. Linn regarding too much artistic verisimilitude as morally reprehensible. A character, typical of the successful American business man, is introduced, and adds to the value of the narrative. A clergyman, too, is the hero of "Anna of the Five Towns," written by Mr. Arnold Gordon of the people in the Staffordshire villages where so much pottery is manufactured. The book is a close album of character studies, the old miser, the subdued though spirited Anna, his daughter, and her two lovers, one a master potter and the other the nonconforming

FROM "THE MASTER OF WARLOCK."

clergyman. The book is interesting and unusual.

Among the novels of the day none has attracted the attention given to Mrs. Humphry Ward's "Lady Rose's Daughter." It is a most unusual combination of veracious biography and modern life in London. The authentic portion of it is taken from the French of several generations ago, the passions and personality of the heroine being transported bodily to other days and other climes. The book is a powerful and readable one. To be compared with it is Miss Alice Brown's "The Mannerings," a novel of real merit, written about a single family in a New Eng-

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land town, paying closer heed than common to the unities of time and place. Within a few months the effect of interacting human personalities upon one another is made evident as the result of conditions long antecedent, and the book is one of full literary charm. Mrs. Henry Dudeney, in "Robin Brilliant," has set forth a series of phases of modern life in England, with an atmosphere of romantic tragedy, and an unexpected and artistic ending. Passing to America, Mr. Elmore Elliott Peake, in "The Pride of Tellfair," has shown what southern aristocracy can do in a northern town in the Mississippi Valley, the contrast between the two civilizations being shrewdly and spiritedly drawn. "Richard Rosny" is a romance in an older fashion, by Maxwell Grey (Miss M. G. Tuttiett). The effect upon the character of a man by a set of extravagant women, his kin, is admirably portrayed, with a spice of tragedy into the bargain. The hero is an English naval officer in the earlier chapters of the story, calling attention to the infrequency with which this essential component in British national life appears in British fiction. London, Halifax and New York share in the exploits of Miss Helen Milicete's "A Detached Pirate," a divorced woman the heroine. San Francisco is the scene of Frances Charles's "The Siege of Youth," a book of art, love and journalism.

So many romances of the Civil War have appeared, all of them of merit and worth reading if time be given, that a mere list of them must suffice: "The Master of Warlock," by Mr. George Cary Eggleston; "The Captain," by Mr. J. Churchill Williams; "Before the Dawn," by Mr. Joseph A. Altsheler; "Kent Fort Manor," by Mr. William Henry Babcock; "The Southerners," by Mr. Cyrus Townsend Brady, and "Old Squire," by Mr. B. K. Benson. Certain books bringing up questions of politics and labor deserve mention: Mr. Eliott Flower's "The Spoilsmen;" Mr. Guy Wetmore Carryl's "The Lieutenant-Governor," and Mr. Frank Lewis Nason's "The Blue Goose." An English mine story, in which an American engineer plays an important part, is "A Daughter of the Pit," by Mrs. Margaret Doyle Jackson. Trusts form the theme of Mr. A. F. Wilson's "The Wars of Peace," thoroughly of to-day in its theme and manner.

MARY CATHERINE CROWLEY.

FRANCIS NEWTON THORPE.

FRANCES CHARLES.

Not readily assignable to any class are a number of readable books. "Darrel of the Blessed Isles" is a beautiful and literary story of Central New York in earlier days, by Mr. Irving Bacheller, with a literary language in place of the usual vulgar dialect. Mr. Edward W. Townsend's "Lees and Leaven" is a study of modern conditions, the scene laid partly in New York City and partly in the interior of the State. "The Trail of the Grand Seigneur" by Mr. Olin L. Lyman, treats of conditions in Northern New York during the War of 1812, and is reminiscent of Cooper. Mr. Cutcliffe Hyne's "Captain Kettle, K. C. B.: More Adventures of Captain Kettle," is replete with humor and adventure. Another story of 1812 is Mrs. Mary Catherine Crowley's "Love Thrives in War."

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The Colonies of the World.

BY

EUGENE PARSONS.

THE word "colony" properly means a body of immigrants settled in a distant land, sustaining political and commercial relations with the mother country. Lately the term has been applied to the foreign possessions of a nation, noncontiguous territory inhabited by alien races. In this broad sense "colony" is used in this article. It is pretty nearly equivalent in meaning to "dependency," but is not to be confounded with "sphere of influence." The latter expression refers to regions where traders and capitalists have secured concessions from native chiefs or rulers; it means about the same as "protectorate."

According to a monograph, "Colonial Administration" (published by the U. S. Bureau of Statistics), the colonies of the world occupy two-fifths of the land surface of the globe and have one-third of the world's population, or about 500,000,000 people. Most of the colonies are tropical, Canada being an exception. There are 140 tropical or sub-tropical colonies, roughly divided into three great groups: East Indian, West Indian, and African.

The population of these colonies is 485,000,000, with but few Europeans. In Canada, Australia, and South Africa, the population is largely British, numbering some 15,000,000 or less.

The seven great nations which have in modern times experimented with the government of noncontiguous people, or "colonies," so called, are England, Netherlands, France, Belgium, Germany, Portugal, and Spain, and their relative success may be considered as in about the order in which they are here named. The population of those of Great Britain is in round numbers 350,000,000; Netherlands, 35,000,000; France, 56,000,000; Belgium (Congo Free State), 30,000,000; Germany, 15,000,000; Portugal, 9,000,000; and Spain, 135,000. Of England's 350,000,000, nearly 300,000,000 are in the East Indian group, and less than 3,000,000 in the West Indies. Netherlands has about 35,000,000 in the East Indian group and 50,000 in the West Indies, and France, 25,000,000 in the East Indian group and 300,000 in the West Indies.

In this article no mention is made of the "colonies" or dependencies of the United States, such as the Philippines, which have a population of 8,000,000 or 10,000,000 (for the most part Malayan). Russia, Turkey, and Japan are also left out of account.

Strictly speaking, the Congo Free State, in Central Africa, is not a colony of Belgium, but of Leopold II., King of the Belgians. At Leopold's expense the Stanley expedition of 1877 was fitted out and the country explored by Stanley was by act of the Berlin Conference of 1884 declared to be under the sovereignty of King Leopold. The administration is in his hands, conducted at Brussels. The local government, with its seat at Boma, follows instructions received from the King and his advisers in Brussels. The native chiefs rule their subjects under the guidance of Leopold's officials. The system is good theoretically, but in practice the laws to protect the natives are not always executed. Tales of frightful atrocities have been told. It is said on good authority that many of the inhabitants are far worse off than they were before the coming of the white man.

The Congo Free State has an area estimated from 800,000 to 900,000 square miles, with a population of from 20,000,000 to 30,000,000. The tribes are mostly of Bantu origin, and some of them are cannibals. In the forests along the Congo River are many bands of pigmies. In 1901 the Europeans numbered 2,204, there being about 30 Americans.

In natural resources the Congo is one of the richest countries in the world. Fruits and vegetables grow in great profusion. More than half of the area of the Congo consists of forest land. Many kinds of valuable woods are found—ebony,

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mahogany, rosewood, teak, etc. India-rubber trees grow in abundance. Rubber is the chief article of export. The exports of rubber and ivory in 1901 were valued at $10,000,000. Nearly all of the tropical products—palm-nuts, coffee, tobacco, etc.—are cultivated with success. Iron and copper are found in large quantities, and rich deposits of gold await the prospector. In short, the Congo Independent State, so-called, is an exceedingly valuable colony, from which King Leopold derives a considerable income over expenditures. The revenue for 1902 was £1,148,000; expenditure, £1,141,000. Years ago the King spent millions for railways and other public works. Now he is getting his money back. The time may not be far off when it will become a Belgian possession.

In 1497 the celebrated Portuguese navigator, Vasco da Gama, rounded the Cape of Good Hope, sailed along the eastern shore of Africa, and reached India. This was the beginning of European exploration in the Indian Ocean. Other Portuguese navigators followed, and during the next few years they established trading posts at various points on the coast of India and China. Thus Portugal obtained her colonies in East Africa, Asia, and in the Indian Ocean.

Portuguese East Africa is a long tract of country lying south of German East Africa and east of British South Africa. It has a coast-line of 1,400 miles, and the Zambezi is its largest river. Among its products are wax, gums, seeds, coffee, tobacco, and ivory. Its area is approximately 301,160 square miles, divided into three districts: Mozambique, Zambezia, and Lourenço Marquez; population, 3,120,000, or 10 to the square mile. Its important towns are Mozambique, the old capital, and Lourenço Marquez, on Delagoa Bay to the south. The latter port and Beira (connected by railway with Rhodesia) have a trade of more than $10,000,000 annually, mainly of goods in transit to the Transvaal and to Rhodesia. The Zambezia and Mozambique Companies are engaged in agricultural, industrial, and mining operations.

Angola, on the west coast of Africa, is the largest of Portugal's colonies. It was settled by Portuguese more than four hundred years ago. Its area is estimated from 457,000 to 510,000 square miles, and the inhabitants from 2,000,000 to 4,120,000. Angola has a coast-line of more than 1,000 miles from the Congo River to the south. Its chief products are sugar, ivory, vegetable oils, wax, india-rubber, cocoanuts, and coffee. The exports amount to nearly $10,000,000 a year, and the imports to $8,000,000 or $9,000,000. From the capital, Loanda, on the coast, a railway runs inland through rich plantations 200 miles to Ambaca. In 1900 there were 1,170 miles of telegraph lines. Several companies are at work, developing the resources of the country. Gold, copper, iron, and other minerals have been found. The colony is a source of profit to the mother country, which has most of its trade. Of late years Great Britain's exports (coal and textiles) have increased; its commerce with Angola in 1901 amounted to $2,500,000.

Farther north on the west coast of Africa is the little colony of Portuguese Guinea, bounded by the French Sudan on the east and north. Its area is 4,440 square miles; population, 820,000. Its chief products are hides, oil, seeds, ivory, wax, and rubber. Its commerce is less than a million dollars annually. Not far from the coast are the Cape Verde Islands, fourteen in number, having an area of 1,480 square miles and a population of 147,424. The islands have a commerce amounting to nearly $4,000,000 a year, and are self-supporting. Other islands in the Atlantic belonging to Portugal are Madeira, the Azores, Prince and St. Thomas Islands.

Portugal's eastern possessions are as follows: Goa, on the coast of India, having an area of 1,390 square miles, and a population of 495,000; Damao (including the little island of Diu) on the coast about 100 miles north of Bombay, with an area of 168 miles and a population of 77,454; the islands of Taipa, Colôane, and a part of Macao, at the mouth of the Canton River, all having an area of four square miles and a population of 78,627; the isle of Pulo Cambing in the Malay Archipelago, also the eastern part of the island of Timor, having an area of 7,458 square miles, and a population of 300,000. All of these colonies, except Macao, have insufficient revenues to meet the cost of administration.

The commerce of Portuguese India amounts to $2,500,000 annually, of which Portugal has only a small share; of Macao,

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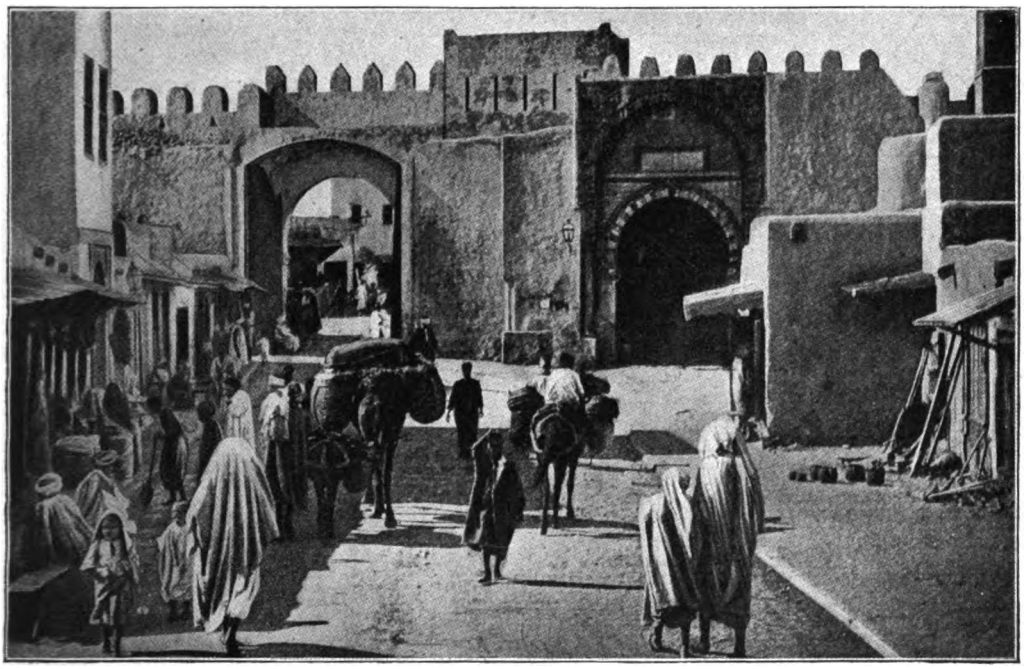
from $25,000,000 to $30,000,000 a year, of which Portugal has little. The trade of Timor amounts to about $400,000 a year. Although five of the Portuguese colonies are self-supporting, the mother country reaps indirect advantages of one sort or another from its oversea possessions, which are retained partly from "sentiments of national honor and historical pride." The financial burden is much less now than in former years.

The little kingdom of Denmark has few colonies. The Faröes are a group of islands lying between Iceland and the Shetland Islands. They have an area of 511 square miles and a population of 15,230. Iceland has an area of about 40,000 square miles and a population of 70,927, mostly engaged in fishing. Its commerce amounts to about $1,400,000 a year. The inhabited part of Greenland, about 43,000 square miles, has a population of nearly 12,000. The trade, consisting of oils, furs, and other arctic products, is valued at $300,000 a year. The Danish West Indies—St. Croix, St. Thomas, and St. John—have an area of 138 square miles and a population of 30,000, mostly Negroes. Of late years they have suffered from financial depression, due to the falling-off of trade with the United States. In 1901 the commerce with Denmark amounted to about $30,000. The principal products are sugar, molasses, and rum.

Italy has two colonies or dependencies in Northeast Africa. Eritrea, on the west coast of the Red Sea, has an area of 88,500 square miles and a population of 450,000. The inhabitants are of Ethiopian stock. The soil is fertile, producing the cereals, maize, cotton, coffee, tobacco, etc. With irrigation agriculture would flourish. The pearl-fisheries are valuable. In 1901 the exports from Massawa amounted to $550,000; imports, $1,860,000. Italian Somaliland, lying east of Abyssinia and British Somaliland, has an area of 100,000 square miles and a population of 400,000. The colonies are not self-supporting. The expenditures of Italy have been very large because of hostilities with native tribes. In 1898 the Italian government granted by treaty to the Benadir Company the administration of public affairs in the colony.



THE GATE OF TUNIS.
Scene in Kairwan, the holy city of French Africa.

Of Spain's once mighty empire but little is left. Most of her possessions in the New World were lost nearly a century ago. In 1898 Cuba was freed, and the

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Philippines were ceded to the United States. In 1899 Germany obtained by treaty the groups of Caroline Islands, Pelew Islands, and Marianne Islands in the Pacific. Thus the Spanish colonial possessions were reduced to an area of about 253,000 square miles. "By an arrangement with France in 1900, Spain agreed to forego her claim to a large portion of the Adrar interior, south of Morocco, on condition that France agreed to allow her a portion of the territory claimed by Spain on the Muni and Campo." The Rio de Oro and Adrar district now includes approximately 80,000 square miles, with an estimated population of 50,000. The Canary Islands, having an area of 2,808 square miles and a population of about 340,000, form a province of Spain; and the small states on the north coast of Morocco—Ceuta, Melilla, etc.—are also considered a part of Spain. Spain's remaining colonies or protectorates are as follows: Ifri (on the southwest coast of Morocco), having an area of 27 square miles and a population of 6,000; the islands of Fernando Po, Annabon, Corisco, Elobey, and San Juan, which lie near the equator off the coast of Kamerun and French Congo, having an area of 850 square miles and a population of 24,000. The area of the Muni-Campo region is estimated at about 10,000 square miles, with a population of perhaps 100,000. The remains of Spain's colonial empire comprise, all told, territories of less than 100,000 square miles, with a population roughly estimated at 186,000.

The colonial empire of France is larger than that of any other nation, except Great Britain. The total area of the French colonies and dependencies the world over is not far from 4,500,000 square miles, with a population of 56,000,000 or more. The French domain in Africa comprises more than one-third of the land surface of the Dark Continent. With the territory in Rio de Oro recently acquired from Spain, its area is not far from 4,000,000 square miles, exclusive of the island of Madagascar near by. The population of this wide expanse of country, much of it desert, is about 30,000,000. The Sahara tract (about 1,800,000 square miles) is thinly settled, having less than 3,000,000 inhabitants. In northern Africa are Algeria and Tunis, which may be regarded as parts of France, not colonies. Bordering on the west coast of Africa, south of the Spanish Adrar, are Senegal, French Guinea, the Ivory Coast, Dahomey, Senegambia, and the French Congo. These territories are settled by mixed races of Negroes, Berbers, Arabs, and the remnants of many conquered tribes. Although the French penetrated these regions centuries ago, not much was done to develop their resources until 1854 and later. In the interior, north of the Ivory Coast and Dahomey, are the Military Territories in the district formerly known as the French Sudan, around the upper waters of the Niger River. They have been gained by conquest since 1880. France has spent large sums of money on her African colonies, founding schools, building railways, running telegraph lines, and constructing public works. It remains to be seen how much the French government will realize on its investments. In East Africa is the small protectorate of Obok, on the Somali coast. Included in the African possessions of France are the islands not far from the east coast, viz.: Madagascar, Reunion, Ste. Marie, Nossi-Bé, Mayotte and the Comoro Isles.

For more than two hundred years France has been acquiring possessions in Asia. In 1763 she lost most of the Indian Empire, retaining only a few factories and cities on the southern coast of India. Pondichéry and the other French colonies of India have a total area of about 197 square miles and a population of 279,000. French Indo-China is a long strip of land south of China and east of Siam. It includes five dependencies—Tongking and Laos in the north, Annam in the center, and Cambodia and Cochin-China in the south. Their combined area is about 363,000 square miles, with a population estimated at 20,400,000. The beginnings of French influence in Annam date back to 1787; by treaty it was declared a French protectorate in 1884. Cochin-China was acquired in 1861; Cambodia in 1862; Tongking in 1884; and Laos in 1893.

France has several groups of islands in the South Pacific, acquired from 1841 to 1887. New Caledonia, lying west of Australia, is the largest; near it are the Loyalty Islands, and a little to the north are the New Hebrides (English and French). Other French establishments in

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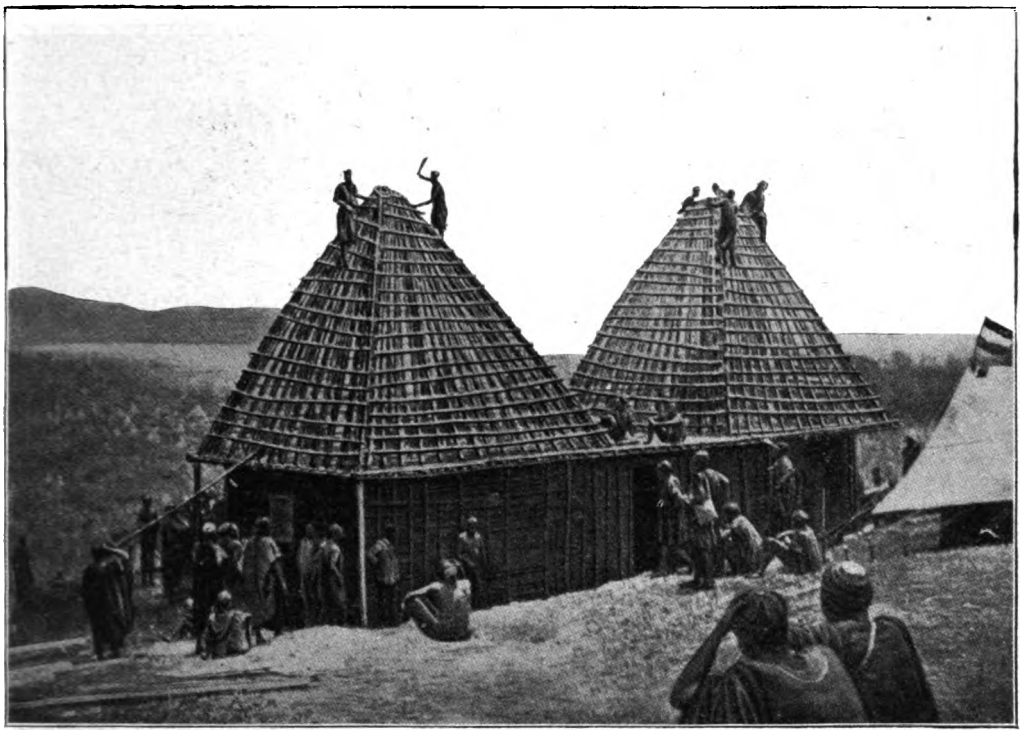

NATIVES BUILDING TEMPORARY STATION ON THE PROJECTED RAILWAY IN KAMERUN GERMAN AFRICA.

Oceania are the Society Islands (Tahiti and Moorea), the Tuamotu Islands, the Marquezas Islands, the Leeward, etc. They have a total area of 9,220 square miles and a population of 82,000.

Only a few fragments remain of the wide dominions that France held in the Western World in the seventeenth century. French Guiana, on the northeast coast of South America, is the largest, having an area of 46,850 square miles and a population of 22,710. In 1634-5 France took possession of some islands of the West Indies. In the Lesser Antilles are Guadeloupe and Martinique, having an area of 1,068 miles and a population in 1896 of about 355,000. Near the southern coast of Newfoundland are the little groups of St. Pierre and Miquelon, having an area of 93 miles and a population of 6,250.

Few of the French colonies are self-supporting. The burden of administering their affairs has been constantly increasing. The cost of the colonies has grown from 28,000,000 francs in 1876 to 112,000,000 in 1903. The greater part of this expenditure—some 72,000,000 francs—is for military occupation.

Considering the enormous extent of France's colonial possessions, her trade with them is not very great. The value of French commerce to and from Algeria exceeds that from the rest of her oversea possessions. The trade of France with her dependencies (exclusive of Tunis and Algeria) amounts to about $110,000,000 annually.

"Germany's foreign protectorates are 'spheres of influence,' rather than colonies in the ordinarily accepted sense of the term. Her extension of empire beyond the bounds of Europe began in 1884, and now includes over 1,000,000 square miles of territory, with an estimated population of 14,700,000 people, most of these being in Africa." The German protectorates in Africa are Togoland (on the west coast between Dahomey and the Gold Coast), Kamerun (between British Nigeria and the French Congo), German Southwest Africa (northwest of Cape Colony), and German East Africa (east of the Congo Free State). Except Togoland, none is self-supporting.

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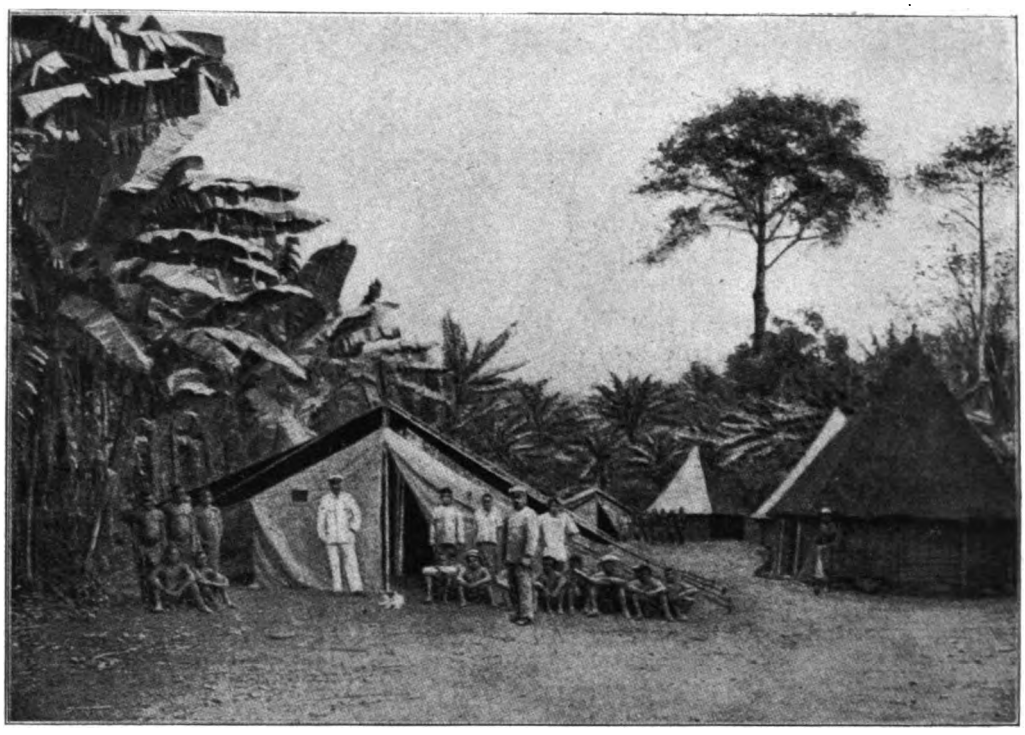

CAMP OF EXPEDITION IN KAMERUN, A GERMAN COLONY IN WEST AFRICA.

Germany has numerous groups of islands in the Pacific—the Bismarck Archipelago, Solomon, Marshall, Caroline, Pelew, and Marianne Islands, also some of the Samoan Islands. Kiauchau is a German protectorate (of 200 square miles) on the east coast of the Chinese province of Shantung. (For other details respecting the German colonies see THE WORLD TO-DAY, February, 1903, p. 224.)

Holland has many valuable possessions in the archipelago known as the Dutch East Indies or Netherlands-India. Many of these islands lie between the Philippines and Australia. The largest is Sumatra, near the Straits Settlements. Next in size are Java and Celebes. The Dutch occupy the larger parts of the islands of Borneo and New Guinea, also a small portion of the island of Timor. There are besides these Banca, Sumbawa, Billiton, Sandalwood, Lombok, and numerous groups called the Moluccas, the Riow-Lingga Archipelago, and smaller clusters of isles. The total area of Netherlands-India is from 584,000 to 588,000 square miles, or three-fourths of the Malay archipelago; with Dutch New Guinea, the total area is about 740,000 square miles. The population is estimated from 34,500,000 to 36,000,000, mostly Malays; of Chinese there are 460,000, Europeans 75,000, while the Arabs and other Orientals number 50,000.

In Sumatra the Dutch made their first settlement, in 1598. The island is over 1,000 miles long and 300 miles wide. Next to Borneo it is the largest of the Great Sunda islands, having an area of 161,612 square miles. The island is politically divided into six residencies, Atjeh (or Acheen) in the north, the West Coast, the East Coast, Benkulen, Palembang, and Lampong in the southern end. The natives live chiefly by agriculture, and there are not many towns of importance. Palembang has 53,000 inhabitants and Padang 35,000 (in 1897); smaller towns are Payokombo, Priaman, Natal, Bangis, etc. It is said that Sumatra was the original home of the Malays; thence they went to the Philippines and other islands of the archipelago. The principal exports are coffee, tobacco, pepper, nutmegs, copra, gums, caoutchouc, etc. Rice and cotton

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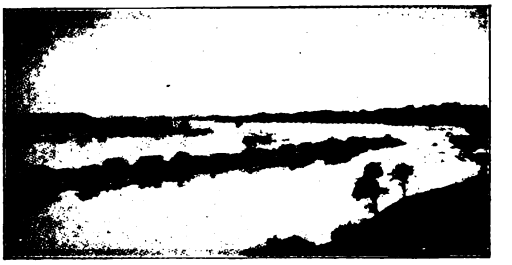
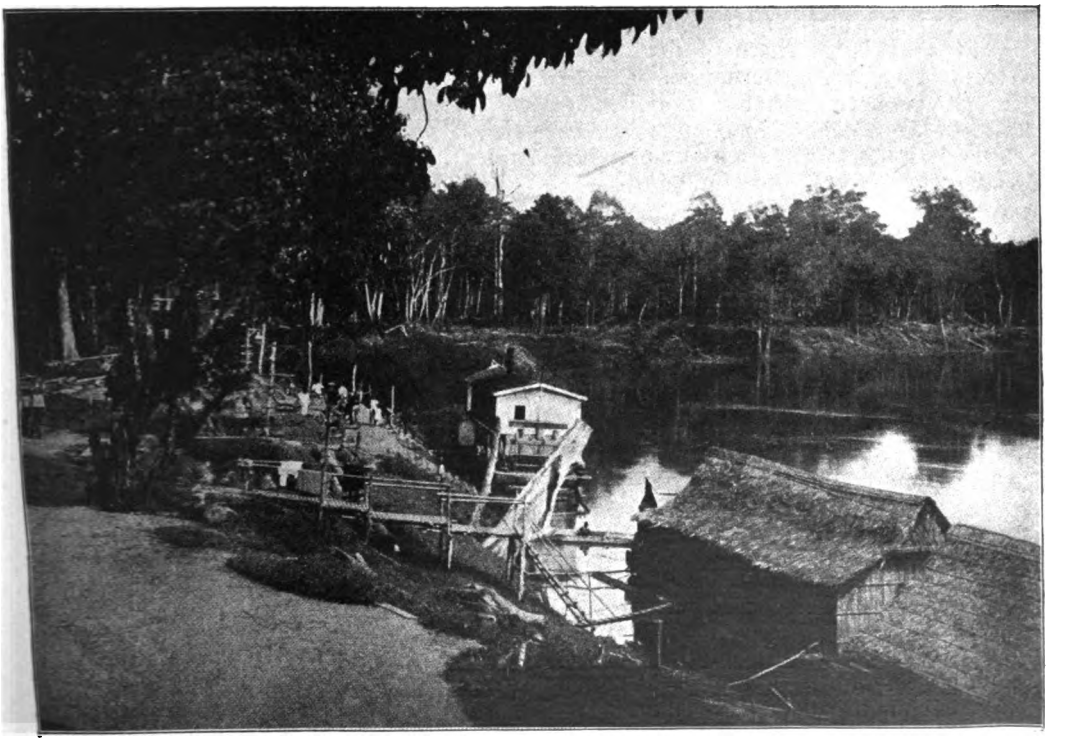
are also grown. There are valuable woods, and minerals—gold, iron, copper, tin—are found. About 200 miles of railways have been built, and there are good roads connecting the inland plantations with the coast. The northern districts are famous for their tobacco. In many parts of Sumatra white men (except soldiers) have never gone, and armed expeditions have been necessary to open the country for cultivation. North of Palembang is an extensive sultanate, Djambi, which is in a state of transition. Fighting has occurred here and elsewhere. Atjeh has never been subdued—the war with the Achinese having gone on intermittently since 1872. It was officially declared to be ended in January, 1903, but no news has come of the victorious entrance of the Dutch troops into the Achinese capital. The conflict has cost upward of $100,000,000 and the lives of more than 10,000 Dutch soldiers. However, military posts have been established along the coast, and engineers are building roads in the interior, making it only a question of time when the Dutch will have full control.



SCENE IN DJAMBI, SUMATRA.

Java is the most celebrated of the Dutch colonies, and here the best results have been achieved of the Dutch colonial policy. The "culture system," in vogue for many years, brought the island great prosperity. Of late years the system has been largely abandoned by the government. The island is exceedingly populous, 560 to the square mile; and all the land fit for cultivation has been taken up. How to prevent famine among the Javanese in the future is a problem that confronts the Dutch government. The total area of Java is about 48,784 square miles, with a population of about 27,000,000, of whom 50,000 are Europeans and 260,000 Chinese. The natives are industrious workers, and



LANDING ON EAST COAST OF DJAMBI, SUMATRA, DUTCH EAST INDIES.

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OFFICERS' QUARTERS IN DJAMBI, SUMATRA, DUTCH EAST INDIES.

somewhat advanced in civilization. The soil is fertile, yielding abundance of rice, coffee, tea, tobacco, sugar, etc. The country is well developed, having good roads, railways, telegraphs, steamers, schools, post-offices, etc. Batavia, the capital, has many fine buildings. Space is lacking for a description of the other Dutch dependencies in the East Indies.

The exports of the Dutch East Indies amount to $90,000,000 annually; imports, $75,000,000. "Nearly four-fifths of the exports of sugar, coffee, tea, indigo, cinchona, tobacco, and tin go to the Netherlands, and a large share of the imports are from the home government."

Much has been written in criticism and praise of the Dutch colonial policy. The "culture system" left the Javanese little opportunity for individual initiative. They were useful in carrying out enterprises that the Dutchman managed, and the profits went to Holland or were spent on military expeditions. As a result, the native got nothing but a bare living. It should be said to the credit of the Netherlands government that some of the colonial ministers have had the welfare of the natives at heart and have tried to better their condition by giving them possession of the land they cultivated and by making them more independent of colonial functionaries. Now the revenues are supposed to balance expenditures and no more. Surpluses have generally been eaten up by the expenses of the colonial army, some 40,000 officers and men.

The burden of governing 36,000,000 islanders rests lightly on the placid Dutchman. Nominally the native chief or potentate is in control as of yore, but he is only a figurehead. The sultans and princes imagine they have the fate of their subjects in their own hands, but they rule only in appearance. The elder brother from Holland runs things, and revolts are quickly put down by the colonial troops.

The Dutch West Indies comprises Surinam or Dutch Guiana, on the north coast of South America, and the island of Curaçao, not far from the coast of Venezuela. Dutch Guiana has an area of 46,060 square miles and a population of about 70,000. The colony of Curaçao, including five other small islands, has an area of 403 square miles and a population of 52,301. The home government grants aid to the extent of from $50,000 to $150,000 annually.

No adequate account can be given here of Great Britain's colonies in various parts of the world. Of the 140 colonies, dependencies, protectorates, and "spheres of influence" belonging to the different nations, the United Kingdom has nearly one-half. The area of the British Empire is estimated from 11,250,000 to 11,400,000 square miles. If Egypt and the Egyptian Sudan, which are practically parts of the British Empire, be included, then the transmarine possessions of the United Kingdom comprise some 12,750,000 square miles, or three-sevenths of the total colonial territory of the world. In this grand total, 28,670,000 square miles, are included Russia's Asiatic dominions (6,560,000 square miles), Turkey's tributary states in Africa (Tripoli and Benghazi, 400,000 square miles), and the dependencies of the United States (Alaska, Porto Rico, Philippines, Hawaii, etc., 700,000 square miles). The so-called colonies of the United Kingdom may be divided according to continents, America, Africa, Asia, and Australasia.

New Britannia in the Western World consists of Canada (3,653,946 square miles), Newfoundland and Labrador (162,200 square miles), British Honduras (7,562 square miles), British Guiana (120,000 square miles), the British West Indies (12,177 square miles), and the islands in the South Atlantic (7,600 square miles). These figures are taken from Hazell's Annual for 1903; other authorities make the areas in some instances more or less. Canada was won from the French in 1759. Of the islands in the North Atlantic, the Bermudas were colonized in 1611, and Barbados about 1625. In the

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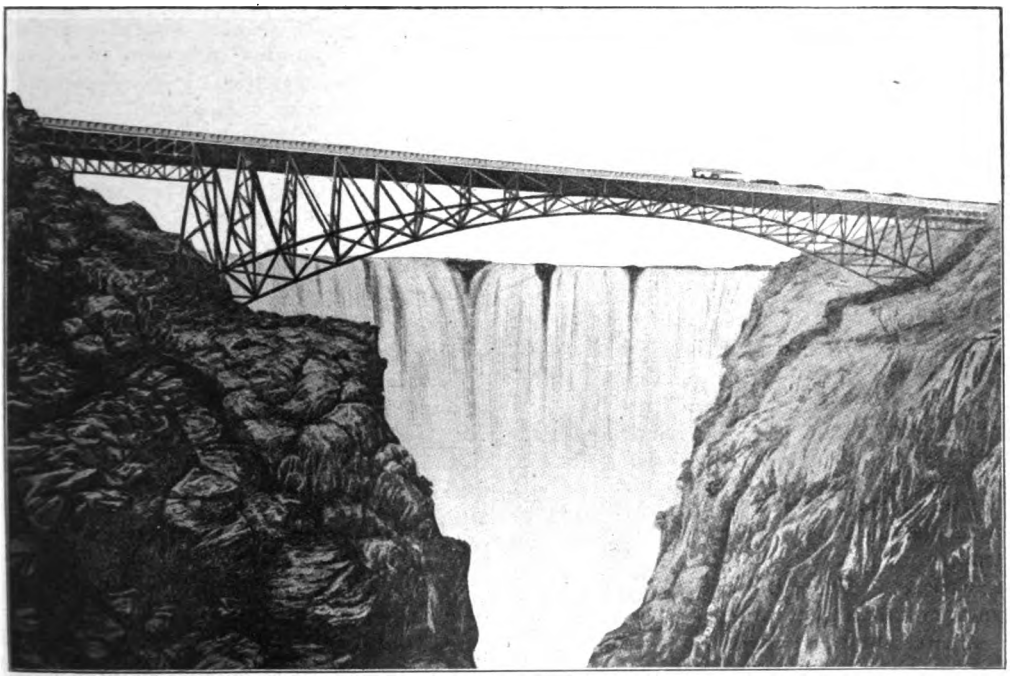
West Indies, the Leeward Islands were settled from 1623 to 1662. The Bahamas and Turk's Island were settled in 1629. Jamaica was seized in 1655, and the Virgin Islands were conquered in 1666. Other islands of the West Indies were acquired by England in 1763 and 1803. British Honduras was conquered in 1798; it had been settled long before. British Guiana was ceded to England by France in 1814. In the South Atlantic, the Falkland Islands became a dependency of Great Britain in 1832-33; also South Georgia, in the Antarctic, in 1833.

In Africa, England's colonies and protectorates extend pretty nearly across the continent, from the Cape to Cairo. The extent of British territory in Africa has been variously estimated from 2,500,000 to 3,050,000 square miles. If Egypt, Sudan, and other regious occupied by British troops be included, the sections of the map marked British red are much greater. In 1618 the English gained their first foothold in West Africa, when a company of traders founded forts and factories in Gambia and the Gold Coast, but there were no colonies in the true sense before the British occupation of Sierra Leone in 1787. Cape Town, first settled by the Dutch, became a British dependency in 1814. Natal became an English colony in 1843. In 1879 the National African Company was organized to extend commerce along the Niger River eastward, and in 1885 the British government proclaimed a protectorate over this country, named Nigeria. In 1885 Bechuanaland became a protectorate, and in 1888 British protection was extended over the extensive tract of country named Rhodesia, after Cecil J. Rhodes, who headed the British South Africa Company. Central Africa (sometimes called Nyasaland) became a British protectorate in 1889, Uganda in 1894, and East Africa in 1895-96. The population of British Africa is roughly estimated from 40,000,000 to 60,000,000.

In Asia and near the Asiatic coast, Great Britain has many possessions: Cyprus, Aden, and Socotra, on the southwest; Ceylon, Straits Settlements, the protected Malay States, Wei-hai-wei, and British India. The area of these possessions is variously estimated from 1,620,000 to 1,928,000 square miles, with a population of 298,000,000 to 325,000,000. The beginnings of the Empire of India date



BRIDGE OVER THE ZAMBEZI RIVER IN BRITISH AFRICA.
The bridge, when completed, will have a span of 500 feet. The Zambezi section of the Cape to Cairo Railway is nearly done.

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back to the early part of the seventeenth century, when the East India Company established factories in Surat and Madras. Clive's famous victory at Plassey (1757) gave England the nucleus of the Indian Empire. Commercial advantages and military necessity led to the annexation of other parts of Asia and of islands in Asiatic waters. In the Asiatic archipelago Hongkong was acquired in 1841; Sarawak in 1888; North Borneo in 1877.

A convict station was established at Sydney, Australia, in 1788; a colony was founded in New South Wales, 1815; in West Australia, 1829-32; and South Australia, 1836. In the Pacific Ocean Tasmania was settled in 1803; New Zealand was ceded to England in 1840; New Guinea was added in 1884; the Fiji Islands were annexed in 1874. Australia, with an area of 2,973,076 square miles, had a population of 3,777,221 in 1901; New Zealand, with an area of 104,471 square miles, had a population of 773,000; Fiji, with an area of 7,740 square miles, had a population of 122,670; and New Guinea, with an area of 90,540 square miles, had a population of 350,000. No enumeration is attempted of Great Britain's myriad isles in the Pacific.

COMMERCIAL EDUCATION IN GERMANY.—The Germans are nothing if not systematic and methodical. Whatever they do, from a job of cobbling to the most profound scholastic investigation, is characterized by precision and thoroughness. These traits show very prominently in the scientific manner in which the German merchants and chambers of commerce are fulfilling the urgent need for commercial education. Just as particular care and skill are devoted to this branch of school training in the Empire as to any other. Youths are trained to become efficient merchants just as they are trained to become efficient lawyers, physicians, or engineers.

The primary commercial school movement, now in full force throughout the Empire, originated in the Rhine Province of Prussia. There the need of elementary commercial education became imperative just after the creation of the German Empire in 1871. That province received an irresistible impulse to commerce and industry from the Franco-Prussian War. Year by year competition for markets became sharper, and the increase of population soon made it apparent to merchants and manufacturers that the training of apprentices was an indispensable necessity in the search for markets. Now, everywhere in Germany the conviction is manifest that the manufacturers of the empire would play a losing game unless the supporting factor of commercial education be maintained at the highest pitch of skill.

At the present time there are eighteen primary commercial schools distributed among as many cities of the Rhine Province, with a total attendance of 2,114 pupils. The school in Gummersbach was founded by the Prussian State. The schools in Trier, Mühlheim, Düsseldorf, Crefeld, Bonn, and Barmen were founded by the chambers of commerce in those cities. Those in Aix-la-Chapelle, Cologne, Elberfeld, Saarbrücken, Wetzlar, and Remscheid were founded by the merchant unions. In Coblenz, Rheydt, Geldern, and Duisburg the schools were founded by the merchant unions and private individuals. The school at Rheydt is exclusively for girls, while those at Bonn, Coblenz, and Cologne are coeducational.

In the matter of financial aid the Kingdom of Prussia makes annual contributions of the amounts indicated to schools in the following cities: Aix-la-Chapelle ($200), Crefeld ($452.20), Cologne ($428.40), and Trier ($100). The following schools receive support to the amounts designated from the cities in which they are located: Barmen ($250), Bonn ($240), Coblenz ($75), Crefeld ($75), Gummersbach ($300), and Saarbrucken ($75). All these amounts are given merely to make good the yearly deficits.

The practical nature of the curriculum offered in these German commercial schools presents an inspiring object for American emulation. In most of the eighteen primary commercial schools of the Rhine Province the main subjects taught are French, English, Spanish, Italian, bookkeeping, arithmetic, correspondence, stenography, and drawing.

There is a general law in the Rhine Province which compels all apprentices under eighteen years of age to attend either the primary commercial schools or other schools of similar character. The conditions of admission are for the most

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part different in each school. The majority admit only the sons of tradesmen, but many admit on equal footing the sons of the municipal authorities, lawyers, etc.

Usually the board of directors of these schools consists of a committee chosen from the municipal authorities of the city in which the school is located. This board selects the curriculum, attends examinations, solicits funds, chooses teachers, and makes all necessary recommendations to the minister of education. As a rule the mayor of the city is chairman of the board. In most German primary commercial schools the vacations come at the same time as those in other public schools in the Empire.

In curriculum and management these eighteen primary commercial schools of the Rhine Province of Prussia differ little from the two hundred other similar schools distributed among almost as many cities of the Empire. This is without counting the more important primary commercial schools of the free cities of Hamburg, Bremen, and Lübeck, which are of special importance. The statements made above concerning the schools of the Rhine Province of Prussia apply equally well to most of the other primary schools of the Empire, with a few exceptional differences.

In Berlin there is a primary school for girls. In Schleswig-Holstein primary commercial schools have as yet been but little developed. This is perhaps due to the fact that the four schools in the province are for the most part private enterprises. No compulsory laws being in force, the attendance is poor.

As the Rhine province was the first, so Westphalia was the last of the Prussian provinces to introduce primary commercial schools. All its ten schools, except the one at Iserlohn, were established between the years 1888 and 1895. Six were founded by merchant unions, one by the city (Bielefeld), one by a chamber of commerce, and one by the city and chamber of commerce of Dortmund. About half of these schools receive financial assistance yearly from state, city, and chamber of commerce, and the other half from private individuals. Only in Bielefeld and Herford is compulsory attendance in force. Building, light, and heat are furnished usually by the municipal authorities of each city. It costs each student on an average $5 to $7 annually for each subject taught.

In Silesia conditions are peculiar. Here are about twenty-five primary commercial schools, yet on the whole they do not play an important part in the educational system, notwithstanding that the curriculum is in most cases more extensive than in other provinces of Prussia, where such education is farther developed. The subjects taught are: German, French, English, bookkeeping, commercial law, political economy, transportation, geography, materials of commerce, history, arithmetic, correspondence, and stenography.

The free cities, Hamburg, Bremen, and Lübeck, are the gateways through which pass $2,400,000,000 worth of commerce every year. Naturally, these cities give a good deal of attention to commercial education. Since 1874 the commercial schools of Hamburg have prepared for actual business life 10,150 clerks and apprentices. During the past twenty-five years Bremen and Lübeck have sent out almost an equal number. The subjects that receive the greatest attention in these schools are: English, French, Spanish, Italian, Danish, Swedish, bookkeeping, stenography, correspondence, commercial arithmetic, and commercial geography. Fully 80 per cent. of the pupils study the English language.

In the little state of Altenburg there is only one primary commercial school. This was founded by the merchant organizations of the city of Altenburg in 1865. The yearly attendance averages seventy-five pupils. Yet in the discipline that governs the apprentices this institution offers an excellent object-lesson for the many laxly administered schools and small colleges in the United States. Some of the laws read thus:

"It is expected that every pupil will behave himself properly while in school. The wishes of the director and teachers amount to a command and must be promptly obeyed.

"Pupils are not expected to reach the schoolroom earlier than a quarter of an hour before class exercises begin. They must be provided with books and writing material, and must take their seats quietly. Tardiness, unless a good excuse is given, will be punished by extra work.

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When the teacher enters and leaves the schoolroom the pupils should rise in token of respect.

"Whispering is strictly forbidden.

"Pupils must be orderly during the recesses. All noise, yelling, and calling, the slamming of doors, and running through the rooms and halls, each and all, are decidedly against the rules. If the school property should be damaged and the offender cannot be detected, the whole class will be held responsible.

"If a pupil is prevented by illness from attending school, it is the duty of the parents or principal to send in a written excuse to the director some time during the day.

"It is expected that every apprentice will carefully observe the time set apart for study at home.

"Apprentices are absolutely forbidden to attend dances or to take dancing lessons."

The punishments usually consist of extra work, report of misconduct to principal, public reprimand, and finally expulsion. Under such wholesome paternalism, one naturally infers, there can be no mutinies like the disgraceful "strikes" that have occurred within a year in some of the public schools of Chicago, and in the Michigan Agricultural College.

While I am on the subject of discipline, it is worth remarking that the teachers and principals of the schools of New York City and the neighboring boroughs are practically unanimous in desiring a revival of corporal punishment for unruly pupils. The recent report of the Metropolitan Principals' Association contains some striking statements bearing on the present defective American system of discipline:

"We are in accord with the general spirit of the laws governing punishment of refractory pupils, but we must confess that there are pupils on whom the prevailing method of discipline has not the corrective effect that is intended.

"We feel justified in recommending for these pupils sterner measures. Every child has the right to demand of us that we train him to a wholesome respect for law. Training implies power to enforce obedience. The child's right is our duty, from which we are not absolved by the mere plea of sentiment.

"The unruly children of a class, taking advantage of the limitations of the teachers' powers, waste the time of the other pupils, make class management a difficult task, and in many cases conduct themselves toward teachers in a manner that would not be tolerated outside of a public school building.

"We would, therefore, respectfully recommend that any pupil who, upon trial by the proper authorities, is adjudged unamenable to the prevailing method of discipline, shall be deemed subject to corporal punishment."

The testimony of the New York City Teachers' Association is to the same effect and is subscribed to by the teachers of the boroughs of Brooklyn, Queens, Richmond, and Bronx. The invariable testimony is that the morale of the schoolboys of these boroughs has suffered since the abolition of corporal punishment. A woman principal said, in a meeting of the New York City Teachers' Association, that the people who sentimentalized over the subject of corporal punishment never taught boys' classes and that it was very easy for them to gush about moral suasion. She could testify from years of experience in teaching boys' classes that some boys needed the rod.

"The first thing that a child must learn," she said, "is obedience. If a boy refuses to obey he should be made uncomfortable until he does. Nature uses pain to discipline grown people, and pain is a good thing to use on refractory boys."

This sentiment was applauded.

Powerful discipline and a practical curriculum in an institution devoted to the training of mercantile apprentices for large commercial affairs are what Germany offers American educators for imitation. Hitherto, American commercial education has been acquired, for the most part, at haphazard in the school of experience. But competition is becoming so severe in this country that the demand for expert commercial training is imperative, and it can be furnished best by practical schools.

IVAN C. WATERBURY.

CONSUMPTION has so often been proclaimed curable and cured that people have become sceptical upon the matter, in spite of the marvelous progress made in the prevention and cure of other diseases. But now well grounded evidence is forth-

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coming in Berlin, Germany, that this scourge of civilization is under control. Mr. Robert Schneider, a German merchant with a practical knowledge of chemistry, while traveling in Australia, noticed that the natives of the northwest used a decoction of the leaves and roots of the eucalyptus tree as a remedy for consumption, and that natives living where the tree was abundant were generally immune from the disease. Eucalyptus has, indeed, long been known in materia medica as an efficient germicide and antiseptic.

With the aid of a physiological chemist, Herr Schneider prepared a combination of flowers of sulphur, powdered charcoal, and the pulverized eucalyptus leaves, impregnated with essential oil of eucalyptus. This mixture has been named "sanosin," and is the material which has been used in the recent experiments. Since the time of Galen the fumes of sulphur have been known to exert a curative effect upon sufferers from phthisis, and it appears that the combination of sulphurous acid with eucalyptus and carbon has a peculiarly effective potency in attacking the bacillus of tuberculosis. On account of its extreme volatility, sanosin is put up in sealed glass tubes, each containing a dose of about 2 grams (31 grains), in which condition it is to be sold, like other medicines, through authorized druggists. When used, the tube is broken and its contents poured on an earthenware plate heated by a spirit lamp; the volatile eucalyptus quickly evaporates, and, in combination with the small quantity of sulphurous-acid fumes generated, medicates with an aromatic, penetrating odor the air of a closed room, in which the tuberculous patient lives and inhales the curative influence in an easy, natural way.

The new remedy was brought to Berlin in September of last year, where, after due consideration, it was taken in hand for elaborate scientific test and practical experiment. Prof. Theodor Sommerfeld, of the University of Berlin—a leading authority in pulmonary disease—and Dr. Danelius, also a lung specialist, took charge of the experiments and a special clinic or hospital ward was opened for that purpose in the Moabit quarter. Other physicians were assigned to the various details of the work. One made regular and frequent examinations of the sputa of the patients under treatment, keeping careful record of the changes in each case from day to day; another made daily inspections of their general condition, temperature, pulse, appetite, etc., so that the collective record in each individual case is the work of several different expert physicians. The patients were taken from the poorest class of sufferers, many of whom live at Berlin in damp, unsanitary dwellings, and throng the public hospitals at all seasons of the year. So prevalent and fatal is tubercular disease among this class that notwithstanding all that science has hitherto done to restrain its ravages, the death rate in Berlin alone from that disease averages ten per day. Each patient, before being admitted to the new treatment, was required to present a certificate from the Royal Hospital showing that he or she had been treated there and was suffering from progressive tuberculosis; many when admitted had reached a stage at which hope of relief by ordinary means had been practically abandoned. Thus far 120 patients have been treated, of whom it is stated more than 50 per cent. have been discharged as cured.

These are substantial results, but many physicians do not accept what may be only arrest of the disease for a few months as proof of permanent cure, while others doubt whether inhalation can reach the ultimate seat of the disease.

DU BOIS, William E. B.—Professor Du Bois of Atlanta University has recently come into national prominence by his advocacy of a career for the colored people of the United States diametrically opposed to that of Booker T. Washington, President of Tuskegee Normal Institute. The latter named has found universal approval for the advice given his people that for the present they should forego three invaluable things: political power, civil rights, and higher education, while they bend all energies toward industrial efficiency and financial independence, as the basis in time of nobler acquisitions. This view Prof. Du Bois has recently impugned in his book of essays, entitled "Souls of Black Folk," a work not only replete with wide and precise information, but written in a chaste yet almost lyric style of choice English. Professor Du Bois shows that in the years since Tuskegee methods have prevailed there have come

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about the disfranchisement of the negro, the legal creation of a distinct status of civil inferiority for him, and the withdrawal of aid from institutions for the higher training of the negro. But Mr. Du Bois would have him insist upon his right to the ballot as a necessity for his social salvation and as his just desert. "We, the darker ones, come even now not altogether empty-handed; there are to-day no truer exponents of the pure human spirit of the Declaration of Independence than the American negroes; there is no true American music but the wild, sweet melodies of the negro-slave; the American fairy tales and folklore are Indian and African; and, all in all, we black men seem the sole oasis of simple faith and reverence in a dusty desert of dollars and smartness."

Such considerations may well give pause to those who are inclined to follow Mr. Washington's method without let or hindrance from other sources.

DUSTING DEVICE.—The sidewalk in front of a large furnishing house in Nottingham, England, is daily blocked by crowds of people watching through the windows the working of a new dusting device. The first inquiry of the surprised and admiring spectator usually is, Is that an American idea? So far as we know, there is nothing like this cleaner outside of England—not even in America. The system was invented by Mr. H. C. Booth of London, and last year was taken over by a company which experimented with it in various metropolitan hotels, theaters, and other public places. Lately it has been tested in railway carriages, and now, its practicability being assured, agencies are being established throughout the British provinces.

The apparatus consists, in the first place, of a machine composed of a two to four-horsepower motor—oil or electric—and an air pump, serving to maintain an "exhaust" of several pounds to the square inch. The machine may be portable, on wheels, or stationary. To it is attached a filter—the dust receptacle—a tightly closed metallic vessel, with a capacity of a peck or more. From the filter extends a 1½-inch rubber hose, which may be of any desired length up to about 700 feet. The hose terminates in a "cleaner" or "renovator," which is a tube flattened out at the end into a kind of long slit. This is rubbed over the carpet or up and down the cloth covering of settees or chairs, from which it quickly sucks all the dust, extracting it not only from the surface, but also from the body of the substance and from underneath it—the underfelt being thus cleaned. Not a particle of dust can be detected if the carpet is then beaten. Indeed, in an experiment made in Nottingham with a carpet returned as clean from a power beater, a considerable amount of dust was extracted by the vacuum process. The severe test of sprinkling a carpet with flour and thoroughly rubbing it in has been made, the vacuum cleaner removing every particle of the flour. No dust is raised in a room. All is sucked through the hose into the filter, whence it is removed and hygienically disposed of—analysis showing that it is composed of many deleterious substances. The pile and color of a carpet are restored by this process, and it is claimed that there is no injurious effect whatever.

In a similar way walls may be cleaned of dust, the cleaner being a brush of horseshoe shape with an exhaust tube in the center. In hotels, theaters, large business houses, and the like, it is proposed to install permanent stationary plants, so that cleaning can take place daily, thus practically abolishing sweeping. Such a plant would be in the basement, with an iron pipe of small diameter leading to fixed points on each floor. At these points flexible hose would be attached, and the plant would be operated, collecting the dust in the basement. No skilled operators are required. Railroad and street cars, vehicles, and ships' cabins and saloons could all be cleaned daily by stationary plants.

To clean residences, the portable machine can be placed in the yard or street and the hose extended into the different rooms. It is stated that the carpets, tapestry, upholstered furniture, mattresses, and bed clothing can all be cleansed of dust in a day, one man cleaning six or eight rooms. There are half a dozen different renovators attachable to the hose, adapted for carpets, chairs, walls, or bedding, as the case may be.

Nothing is said about cleaning clothing, but there is no perceptible reason why the process would not serve that purpose. From houses it removes and destroys dust.

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The Welsh Eisteddfod.

BY

WILLIAM APMADOC.

THE imposing national Eisteddfod festival of the Welsh people on May 30, 1903, ranks with the best ever held, not only in this country, but in the Principality itself. The greatest of all was the one held at the World's Fair in 1893, when $12,000 was distributed in prizes and when foreign choirs won the main choral awards, the first choral prize amounting to $5,000, and a gold medal to the winning conductor.

The word Eisteddfod is pronounced Ise-teth'-vod, the "th" as in "with" or "thou" and the accent falling on the middle syllable. The name has become familiar in all Welsh and English speaking countries and localities, and means, in the best sense of the word, a "Sitting" of poets, essayists, elocutionists, orators, harpists and singers in competitive sessions before competent critics. Another definition reads: "A congress of bards and musicians in friendly competition for artistic excellence." There is no English equivalent for the word, or for a number of other words in the ancient and, also, modern musical Welsh language. The Eisteddfod gatherings for ages have been the Kymric literary Olympics and they are none the less among the same people in this, their adopted land.

THE ORIGIN of the Eisteddfod dates back into centuries before the Christian era—to the Britonic primitive estate when the Druids controlled its functions. In glancing backward to this remote period, we pass by and leave behind the stories and historic remains of peoples born after the Kymric race had become a full-grown nation, with its kings, princes and governmental establishments. Song and harp contests were features of the home life and of the festivals of the "groves"—the "temples of the gods." According to the old Cambrian laws there were three kinds of

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Session President of the Eisteddfod.

Eisteddfods: The Royal, or that which enacted the laws; the Eisteddfod of Justice, where transgressors were tried and where legal questions were decided; the Bardic Eisteddfod, held according to the rules and rites of the Bards of the Island of Britain. "Bards bear no naked weapon against nor in the presence of any one, and no one is permitted to do so in their presence, for a bard is the minister of peace, refuge and justice." This is the Eisteddfod of the present day in many of its features. It has been instrumental, along with the pulpit and press, in preserving until the present time the rich, sonorous Welsh tongue, with its wealth of poetic and melodic literature. The majority of

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W. J. JONES.
Chairman of Eisteddfod Music Committee.

the people of Scotland have for the last century adopted the English language. So have the Irish, though a remarkable Irish revival is now in progress. Wales, on the other hand, has had, and has to-day, a living literature. It has libraries of old manuscripts and modern Welsh books, a powerful press, an eloquent pulpit, a collegiate Sunday school, three universities and the Eisteddfod, the most unique and ancient literary and musical festival in all history. It seems that the Welsh—the Kymry—have been a veritable fulfillment of the prophecy of their chief bard, Taliesin, in the sixth century:

"Eu Ner a folant,
Eu haith a gadwant,
Eu tir a gollant
Ond Gwyllt Walia."

"Their god they'll adore,
Their language they'll keep,
Their country they'll lose,
Save Wild Wales."

The most authentic records have it that the first ancient royal Eisteddfod was held in the fourth century by Owen Ap Maxen Wledig, who, when the Romans departed from the island, was crowned King of the ancient Britons. Other royal Eisteddfods are recorded in ancient Welsh history, chief of which were the ones held in the sixth century by Prince Maelgwyn Gwynedd; in the seventh century, under the auspices of Cadwalader Fendigaid; in the tenth century under Prince Cadwgan Ap Bleddyn, and the most noted of all during the middle ages, the one held at Caersws under the patronage of Prince Griffith Ap Cynan. Throughout the dark ages the people of "Wild Wales" had a literature of their own—the love of letters and of music were never extinguished among them.

The chief Eisteddfods have their "runic" sign—their *Nod cyfrin,* which is nothing less than the sign of God's unutterable name—a mystery. Ancient and historic mottoes adorn the platforms and walls. The motto common to all is: "Y Gwir yn Erbyn y Byd," "The Truth against the World." Others are: "Nothing is truly good that can be excelled." "Heart to heart;" "In the sun's face, the eye of light;" "Awake, it is day!" and many others in possession of certain bardic circles in the several counties of the Principality. "God, and all goodness," "O, Jesus, repress injustice," and many more show the religious bent of the Keltic mind.

ANCIENT MUSICAL FEATURES.—Playing upon the triple-stringed harp and upon the Welsh Crwth (a six-stringed violin), constituted the instrumental portion of the festival in the earlier centuries. The pipe of the shepherds figured but little in the musical contests. Bards were also harpists. There are in printed volumes to-day hundreds of old Cambrian melodies composed by these bard-harpists, which are unsurpassed in beauty, pathos and perfection of form. Some of these, it is believed, were composed impromptu, while "Master Singers" sung impromptu verses in their vocal contests to the melodies played upon the harps. This method of singing is called "Penillion Singing," or "Singing with the strings"—the singer being skilled in weaving stanzas of different metres to the regular melody. This mode of singing is in vogue to-day, but there are few real masters of the difficult art.

During the evening sessions of the leading festivals the oratorios of the "Messiah," "Samson," "Israel in Egypt," "Eli-

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jah, "St. Paul," "The Creation" and others are performed.

THE CHAIRING OF THE BARD is the main literary feature in all important Eisteddfods. It is the annual custom in the national festival in Wales. The Bardic Oak Chair is the highest honor bestowed upon the poet who has composed the worthiest "Awdl," or alliterative ode, wherein the poet exhibits his linguistic skill in using the twenty-four standard metres in alliteration. No other literature contains such a system of alliterative metres. These curious and difficult metre-forms were officially promulgated at the Royal Carmarthen (South Wales) Eisteddfod in the year 1451, presided over by Prince Griffith Ap Nicolas, the noble patron of the arts and sciences, and where David Ap Edmont won the highest honor of Bardism. It was at this notable festival that the "Awdl" metres were established by royal decree, and by adoption by the congress of distinguished Welsh bards there assembled.

The chairing of the bard was the most remarkable incident of the Pittsburg Eisteddfod of May 30. The ceremony consists in having all worthy poets stand in a semicircle behind the new and beautifully carved oak chair. Then the adjudicator reads his criticism upon the poems submitted to him and announces at the close the assumed name of the winner. It is a moment of intense silence and anxiety. until the master of ceremonies repeats the assumed name and calls upon the lucky bard to reveal himself. When he does so he receives a great ovation. As he is led by two officials to the stage a great chorus will sing the national anthem, or a brass band will play "See, the Conquering Hero Comes." The honored poet stands in front of the "Chair," facing the audience, while the chief bard of the day reads the bardic proclamation and, immediately after, a sheathed sword is held horizontally above the head of the poet by a bardic official standing on his left, with the handle toward the chief bard, who draws the sword halfway out of the scabbard while he utters thrice in stentorian tones the peace-challenge question: "Is there peace?" Three times comes the answer, "Peace!" in thunderous tones from the sonorous throats of Welsh thousands. After this the sword is pushed back into the scabbard,

D. LLOYD JONES.
Treasurer of the Eisteddfod Association.

the circle of poets place their right hands on the poet's head, while the chief bard repeats the famous beautiful, untranslatable "Englyn":

"Credwch, chwi feib Ceriwen,—fryd uchel,
Na fradychwyd Awen;
Cadeiriwyd mewn coed derwen
Y bardd a farnwyd yn ben."

There is no English equivalent for "Englyn," the first stanza-metre of the alliterative group. We present a free and very inadequate translation of it: "Believe, ye high-souled sons of Poesy, that the muse is not dishonored; in the oaken bardic chair shall be seated the poet who is adjudged the master of all." Then the poet, unchallenged, seats himself into the full possession of the coveted honor amid the cheers of the throng, followed by the congratulatory effusions of the poets and the singing of the national anthem, "The Land of Our Fathers."

MODERN MUSICAL FEATURES.—During the last hundred years or so vocal music has predominated, much against the will of the literati of the Principality. Choral, glee, part-song, quartet, songs, and piano and harp solos have been the main features

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of the festival. Some of the best musicians of Europe have acted as critical judges over these Welsh competitions, such as the late Sir Jules Benedict, Dr. G. A. Macfarren, Sir Joseph Barnby, Dr. Joseph Parry, and of those now living, Dr. Henry Coward, Dr. A. C. MacKenzie, president of the Royal Academy of Music, London, and other leading musicians. Through these annual national contests some of the best artists of Wales have come to light and prominence. Among them Madame Edith Wynne, Madame Megan Watts Hughes,

ROBERT H. DAVIES.
General Secretary of the Eisteddfod

Madame Mary Davies, Miss Clara Williams of Minneapolis, Minn., Miss Edith Rowland, the Welsh pianist, John Thomas and Aptommas, the celebrated brother harpists, Brinley Richards, Edward German, D. Emlyn Evans, D. Jenkins, Mus. Bac.; Daniel Protheroe, Mus. Bac.; Dr. D. J. J. Mason, Dr. W. Rhys-Herbert, Ben Davies and Ffrancon Davies.

THE PITTSBURG FESTIVAL.—This Eisteddfod, held May 30, 1903, at Exposition Hall under the auspices of the Pittsburg National Eisteddfod Association, was the most brilliant and successful of all Welsh festivals of the last decade. The officers of the Association are: L. E. Davis, M. D., president; Joseph D. Jones, vice-president; Robert H. Davies, secretary; D. R. Williams, assistant secretary; D. Lloyd Jones, treasurer. The music committee, responsible for the test pieces and for the enlistment of mixed choirs, male choirs, ladies' choirs, quartets and soloists, were as follows: W. J. Jones (secretary-treasurer of the Pittsburg Bank for Savings), chairman; D. R. Francis, Stanley Harris, William D. Jones and D. J. Davies. Presidents of Sessions, Dr. L. E. Davis; Hon. Samuel M. Jones, mayor of Toledo, Ohio; and Rev. W. C. Roberts, D. D., LL. D., president of Central University of Kentucky, Danville, Ky.

Conductors of exercises: Thomas P. Williams, New Castle, Pa.; and Albert J. Edwards, Pittsburg.

Adjudicators of Music: Dr. Roland Rogers of Bangor, North Wales; William ApMadoc, Chicago; Henry E. Krehbiel New York City.

Adjudicators of literature and art: G. H. Humphrey, M. A., Utica, New York; Miss A. W. Corbin and Clarence Johns, Pittsburg.

Eisteddfod soloists: Miss Edith Rowland, pianist; Daniel T. Beddoe, tenor; John R. Roberts, baritone—all from Pittsburg.

Eisteddfod accompanist: Professor J. H. Gittings.

About ten thousand people were in attendance at each of the morning and afternoon sessions, and fully fourteen thousand at the evening session when the mixed choral societies contended for the main prize of $1,000.

This prize of the grand choral competition, with a gold medal, was awarded to the Pittsburg Choral Union. The second prize, $500, was awarded to the Youngstown (Pa.) Choral Union. The many other prizes were donated by leading and public-spirited citizens of Pittsburg.

The chief pieces rendered were "Ye Nations, Offer to the Lord" (Mendelssohn), "Leonore" (T. J. Davies), "The Bells of Aberdovey" (T. J. Davies), "The Nun of Nidaros" (Protheroe), "In May" (Dr. Horatio Parker), and "Fairest Daughter of the Graces" (from "Rigoletto").

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The Emerson Centenary.

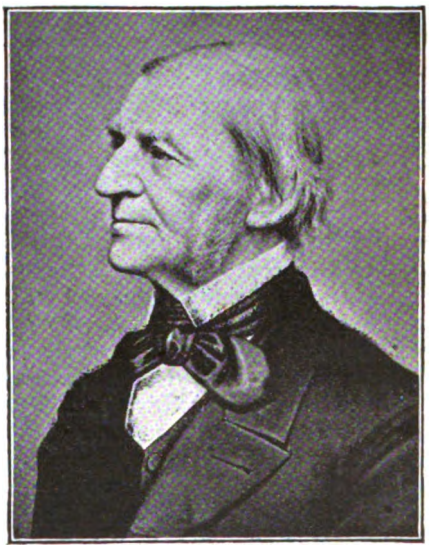
BY

HAYES ROBBINS.

A BROADENING and deepening wave of appreciation of Ralph Waldo Emerson is rolling in upon eastern Massachusetts this centennial year of his birth from all parts of the country, some of it from over seas. In Boston it is an inundation. Emerson meetings, Emerson readings and lectures, Emerson sermons in nearly all the churches, special articles reminiscent and appreciative in the press and reviews, the publication of special editions of his works, Emerson's likeness in all the bookstore windows, and an unprecedented demand for admission tickets to the principal commemoration meetings are the features of the place and hour.

Truly it is an impressive tribute not only to Emerson but also to the intellectual quality of our civilization. The degree of advancement of a civilization is fairly well indicated, in fact, by its promptness to recognize the immortals; the quality of its judgment; its capacity to select from the horde of passing favorites the few Titanic men whom, in Emerson's phrase, the gods shall adopt into their own race. To be sure, capacity for appreciation is not nearly so conclusive a tribute to the health and promise of a civilization as it is of its intellectual acuteness; and not nearly so gratifying as some larger evidences of a new epoch of creative power would be; but perhaps it is all that could be expected, and much to be thankful for, that in this intermediate period of relative mediocrity we have at least the quality of comprehension, to an important degree, of the best that has been. This gives us a broad plateau out of which even greater Sequoias may possibly spring—if the soil prove deep and rich enough.

I would not imply that appreciation of Emerson is anywhere near universal as yet; however great his influence, until quite recently it has been largely unconscious. Dean Stanley reported in England that he found Emerson preaching in every church the Dean visited in America; but there was no social consciousness of this silent transformation. Emerson's early influence was as purely individual as his philosophy. It came to individual men, here one and there one, each unaware of the unseen network that was binding them in a new fellowship. Imperceptibly it diffused itself through the intellectual and spiritual atmosphere, and thence out



RALPH WALDO EMERSON.

into individual minds like the inworkings of inspiration.

Herein is the surest evidence of the cosmic quality of Emerson's work. It became a part of the intuitions of the race because it was in its very nature so nearly identical with the universal "mind-stuff" whence intuition comes. What was the result? Most naturally, that this thought influence, being infinitely larger than any individual mind, had fairly saturated the mental atmosphere before the social con-

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sciousness really began to inquire: "Whence sprang all this? What is the source, or (as Emerson would have preferred it) the instrument through which this new spiritual influence is come into the world?" And it is this half-awakened consciousness of the common debt that is now taking form so rapidly. When the commemoration exercises were planned several months ago even the moving spirits were half skeptical about success on any large scale, but the response has overwhelmingly surpassed all expectations.

The memorial program was arranged practically in two groups: First, a series of meetings on and about the anniversary of Emerson's birth, May 25th; second, a summer school in Concord and Boston to occupy the last three weeks in July, devoted to lectures and discussions on Emerson's personality and influence. The May meetings were organized under various auspices; primarily of the Free Religious Association, formed in 1867, of which Emerson was one of the founders. Other meetings were arranged in connection with the regular Unitarian anniversary week; still others by citizens' committees in Boston and Concord.

The first meeting of importance was coincident with the thirty-sixth annual convention of the Free Religious Association, held Saturday morning, May 23, in the building erected in memory of Theodore Parker, on Appleton street, Boston. Here the speakers were Edwin D. Mead, president of the association; Rev. Paul Revere Frothingham, present occupant of the pulpit made famous by William Ellery Channing; Rev. Charles F. Carter of Lexington, Massachusetts; Rev. Charles G. Ames of Boston, and Mrs. Anna Garlin Spencer.

Another gathering of special interest, among the many, was at the regular Saturday luncheon of the Twentieth Century Club. The larger part of the afternoon was occupied in addresses, largely of a personal and reminiscent character, by Dr. Edward W. Emerson, the poet-philosopher's son, and by the venerable Rev. Edward Everett Hale. On Sunday (May 24) Emerson was the theme of morning sermons quite generally throughout the country, in Boston almost universally; and the most notable meeting in all the Boston celebrations came Sunday evening in the beautiful and spacious new Symphony Hall. A remarkable audience of more than 3,000 people, drawn from far and near, united in a commemoration service of singular dignity, beauty and impressiveness. The musical numbers, though few, were of extraordinary nobility of theme and rendered with thrilling effect by about 200 trained voices of the Handel and Haydn Society. Upon the platform, in front of the massed chorus, sat a distinguished group, including many of the best-known men in the literary, educational, and religious life of the country. The principal address was delivered by President Charles William Eliot of Harvard University, the following being the more notable points in his estimate of Emerson:

"Emerson has been dead twenty-one years, and it is thirty years since he wrote anything new, but his whole philosophy of life was developed by the time he was forty years old, and it may be doubted if he wrote anything after 1843 the germinal expression of which may not be found in his journals, sermons, or lectures written before that date. If, therefore, we find in the accepted thought or established institutions of to-day recent developments of principles and maxims laid down by Emerson, we may fairly say that his thought outran his times certainly by one, and probably by two, generations of men."

In discussing Emerson's anticipations of social conditions, Dr. Eliot said: "When he accumulated the original materials of his essay on 'Worship' there were no large cities in the United States, the great experiment of democracy had not developed many of its sins and dangers; yet how justly he presented them in the following description: 'In our large cities the population is godless, materialized—no bond, no fellow-feeling, no enthusiasm. These are not men, but hungers, thirsts, fevers, and appetites walking. How is it people manage to live on, so aimless as they are? . . . There is faith in chemistry, in meat and wine, in wealth, in machinery . . . and in public opinion, but not in divine causes.' In Emerson's day luxury in the present sense had hardly been developed in our country; but he foresaw its coming and its insidious destructiveness. 'We spend our incomes for paint and paper, for a hundred trifles, I know not what, and not for the things of a man.'

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FORMER RESIDENCE OF RALPH WALDO EMERSON, CONCORD, MASS.

"In 1841 Emerson described in the clearest manner the approaching strife between laborers and employers, between poor and rich, and pointed out the cause of this strife in the selfishness, unkindness, and mutual distrust which ran through the community. He also described with perfect precision the ultimate remedy, the sentiment of love. There is but one remedy for industrial and social strife. It is to be found in kindness, good fellowship, and the affections."

In the religious field President Eliot placed Emerson in the group of the prophets. "In the first place, he taught that religion is absolutely natural—not supernatural. He believed that revelation is natural and continuous, and that in all ages prophets are born. . . . All Emerson's religious teaching led straight to God—not to a withdrawn creator, or anthropomorphic judge or king, but to the all-informing, all-sustaining soul of the universe. . . . All the features of the contest over the 'higher criticism' are foretold by Emerson in 'The American Scholar.' In religion Emerson was only a nineteenth-century nonconformist instead of a fifteenth or seventeenth century one. It was a fundamental article in his creed that 'Whoso would be a man must be a nonconformist.'"

President Eliot's address was probably the most conspicuous contribution to the innumerable current discussions of Emerson; but it is entirely probable that the majority sentiment among those privileged like myself to attend the most notable of these gatherings would be that the meeting at Concord on Monday afternoon, May 25, marked the closest approach to a genuinely Emersonian spirit. Nearly all the speakers had been more or less intimate associates of their distinguished townsman, and the atmosphere of personal affection, a sense of personal loss from which Concord evidently has not fully recovered in the twenty-one years since Emerson's death, seemed thoroughly to pervade the occasion. The morning exercises were

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EMERSON'S GRAVE AT CONCORD, MASS.

largely of a local character, and held in the town hall, where Emerson delivered one hundred lectures during his residence in Concord. In the afternoon, in the old First Parish Church, where the first Provincial Congress met in October, 1774, were held exercises, for which some 3,000 applications for tickets had been received, though hardly a fourth of that number could have been admitted had they come. Here the first speaker was Samuel Hoar, a well-known member of the famous Hoar family of Concord. The happy combination of intellectual appreciation and deep feeling with which he referred to the village associations with the kindly guide, philosopher, and friend of them all diffused an atmosphere of rare tenderness and a quality of peculiar distinction, sustained throughout the meeting, which will cause this "old-home" tribute to live in the memories of the participants long after the addresses are forgotten.

Of Emerson's lectures in the Town Hall Mr. Hoar said: "It is sometimes irreverently said that he 'tried them on' in Concord. If this be true, it is comforting to us to admit that they proved a good fit. They are themselves the record of a noble life. They constitute the greatest service rendered to this community by any single life in its history. They were eagerly attended by old and young. They were filled with lofty and inspiring thoughts, and every now and then came flashes of unexpected humor . . . He lived on the lines his thought pursued; where his standard was planted, to that height he had himself attained; he was singularly free from self-assertion; he sought for and seemed eager to recognize the superiority of others, and lived among us here as other men lived."

The venerable Thomas Wentworth Higginson, hale and hearty still, speaking on "Emerson as a Reformer," recalled the remark of Father Taylor, the famous preacher to sailors in Boston, who, when criticised by some fellow Methodists for being a friend of Emerson, though he was a man who, they thought, must surely go to hell, replied: "It does look so, but I am sure of one thing—if Emerson goes to hell he will change the climate there and emigration will set that way."

Referring to Emerson's address at Dartmouth College in 1838, in which Emerson described the "ardent youth" who mourns the great days and the great men he finds in the histories, ending with the admonition to all youth: "Be lord of a day, through wisdom and justice, and you

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can put up your history books," Colonel Higginson said: "Fifty years ago there must have been more than a thousand men and women in America and in England who could look back on that passage and say of it, 'At any rate, it was the making of me.' A hundred thousand others since then may have, perhaps, looked back and said of that first thousand readers, 'It was they who made us.' You might as well question the creative power of passages in the book of Psalms."

Eloquent addresses by Professors Charles Eliot Norton and William James of Harvard University, one largely reminiscent and the other analytical and appreciative, brought the program to its closing number, a notable tribute by United States Senator George Frisbie Hoar. "Emerson has taught us," declared the Senator, "the virtue of completeness, courage, and sincerity of utterance. In dealing with the things that pertain to the soul he utters no half-truths, no pious frauds. He gives us no milk for babes. The purpose of Emerson, like that of Milton, is to justify the ways of God to man, and they do not need to be clothed in a veil. God is not to be seen, as Moses saw him, from behind. . . .

"Mr. Emerson's philosophy had no stoicism in it. If it brought him ampler compensations than were vouchsafed to common man, grief also filled to its depths a larger heart and touched with its agony nerves more finely sensitive than those of common men. Who has uttered like him in that immortal "Threnody" the voice of parental sorrow? What more loving heart ever mourned the loss of a brother's love than that which could not be unlocked because the key had gone with Charles and Edward. I remember, as if it were yesterday, that winter morning in my early youth when the messenger came to my father's door before sunrise, bringing his written message to one of the household, 'Everything wakes this morning except my darling boy.' The noblest emotions of the soul are nobler to us that they have moved him. . . .

EMERSON'S THEOLOGY.—Among vast numbers of eulogies of Emerson called forth by the vigorously promoted celebration of the hundredth anniversary of the philosopher's birth there have appeared a few poignant criticisms directing attention to an alleged lack of unity of subject, a lack of focus in thought and treatment, an absence of method and system in Emerson's works.

As if to meet these criticisms there has appeared in the *Grande Revue* (Paris) a sympathetic exposition of Emerson's thought from the pen of the distinguished French elucidator of the religious philosophy of Nietzsche, of Renan, and many other famous thinkers along modern lines, M. Victor Basch. Besides deeming Emerson "the greatest man of letters America has produced," M. Basch finds him to be primarily the creator of a theology born of the soil from which he (Emerson) sprang. True, M. Basch condemns Emerson's verse as merely a feebler treatment of the themes of the philosopher's prose essays. The Frenchman also admits that Emerson touches in his essays upon so many problems, views them from so many standpoints and under aspects so unexpected, and embroiders them so profusely with citations of facts borrowed from all sciences, arts, and trades that it is difficult to follow his thought, "while to reduce it to unity would amount to its mutilation." However, with the aid of patience and sympathy, we finally discover two broad converging lines leading through all this thought-maze. These two lines are "Nature" and "the Individual." Beginning with Nature, we learn that every object in Nature shows to the seeing eye the copy of some faculty of the soul, and every faculty of the soul copies an object of Nature. Mind necessarily manifests itself under material aspects, and reciprocally all material forms embody themselves in human thoughts. Every man is bound by a secret sympathy to some section of Nature whereof he is the representative and interpreter. Beginning with "the Individual," we learn that individual souls are separated from one another by barriers invisible, eternal, insuperable; that God has clothed the souls He sends into the universe with qualities incommunicable to other souls. There is within us a special faculty capable of seizing spiritual realities, which constitutes, independent of all experience and all external pointing out, a revelation of the existence of God. The moment a man feels himself truly one with God, prayer is superfluous.

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KESHAQUA CREEK GORGE AT CRAIG COLONY.
The gorge separates the male from the female section.

The Craig Colony for Epileptics.

BY

WILLIAM P. SPRATLING, M. D.,
Superintendent of the Craig Colony, Sonyea, N. Y.

WHEN the entering wedge of the colony system of caring for the defective classes was driven in France in 1849, the wisdom of those who did it could not possibly foresee the success the system was destined to attain—a success, while yet in its infancy in the United States, already of sufficient distinction to warrant its greater adoption.

It would be interesting to run briefly over the history of the colony movement at home and abroad, but we forego this to more fully discuss the purposes and advantages of the best method yet devised of caring for the vast army of defectives that abound in every State in the Union, and that not only fully keep pace in numerical ratio with the population at large, but in many localities are increasing in excess of the normal increase in population.

We can outline the purposes and advantages of ideal colonies, as follows:

1. They provide home life, simple and elemental in form; for they take the individual from his own home, unsuited to his peculiar needs, to a home especially designed to supply such needs.

2. They tend strongly—and this is the best feature of all—*to preserve individuality,* the one thing institutions are apt to submerge or destroy. In ideal colonies, individuals, not units and numbers, are integral, essential parts of the whole. There is in them no pressing and moulding of a great mass of humanity in small spaces through routine life until all are essentially alike.

3. The ideal colony provides vocations of all kinds and degrees for all who require them, vocations ranging from the simplest to the most complex, from weeding the cabbage patch to the making of brick and the construction of houses; provides education that begins at the alphabet and ends in some profession that guarantees self-support; provides amusements and recreations that are not bound by rules of necessity, regularity, and formality; and provides for the organization of homes in a way to throw congenial spirits into pleasant

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companionship, and to place the less fortunate, the less desirable, in a class apart. Ideal colonies provide, in short, for the infinity of simple, daily, homely necessities that go to create and keep cemented together the best types of communal life. In doing this, they are more than homes in that they provide the highest treatment for disease, training along all lines, encouragement wherever required, upbuilding of character, and the necessary healthful restraint for all who need it; and they are less than institutions in that they do not destroy the individuality that counts for more than all the rest, but singles it out and bases all help upon its character.

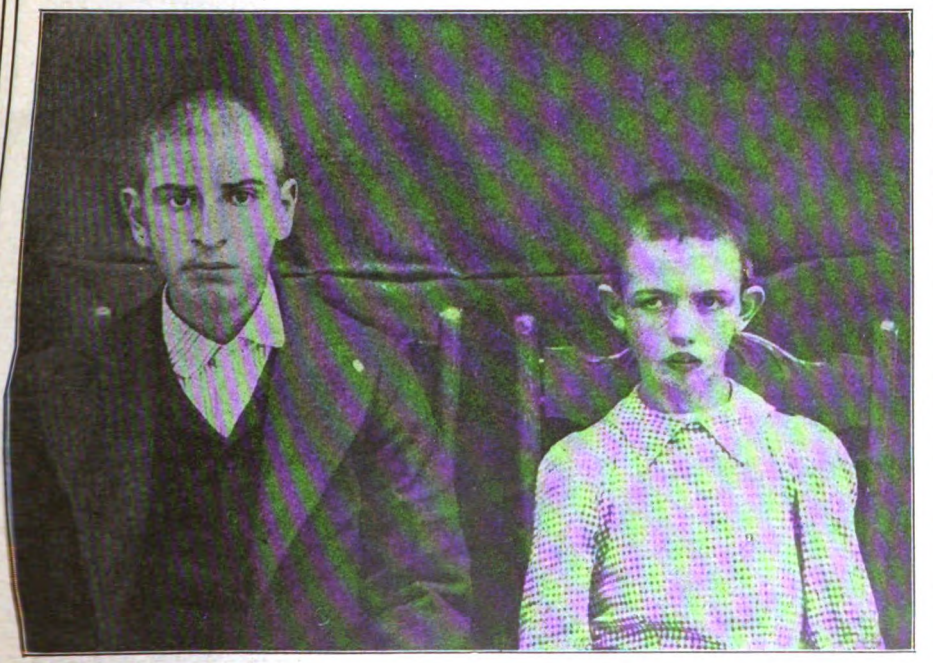
The epileptic, the chronic insane, and the feeble-minded can all be successfully colonized. The system is not one of rigid requirements in little ways, and may suitably be modified to meet the peculiar needs of the three classes named. But in the care of all classes its fundamental features are the same. To modify these would be fatal to the system itself.

The chronic insane and the feeble-minded can be cared for in other ways, in a few buildings, or what is less desirable, in a single large building; but epileptics cannot be cared for successfully, or even with partial success, in any other way than under the colony plan. For the epileptic it is ideal; for the insane and feeble-minded it would be a long step in advance of methods now in use, and would ultimately prove as valuable as it has for the epileptic.

Ideal colonies demand certain natural requirements, such as site, size, soil, water, drainage, and accessibility.

The site of the colony should be removed a reasonable distance from centers of population. The defectives who live in them have no place in the strenuous life. They are infinitely better off in localities where the hum and roar, the wear and tear and strain put upon the strong in the outside world do not penetrate. They also require seclusion from the things that lead to dissipation; things that everywhere abound in city life, but find their lowest ebb in rural communities. The ideal colonist must be largely an agriculturist.

The colony estate should be large, fully an acre to each individual. It is far better



TYPES OF IMBECILES: THE CONDITION FOLLOWING OR PRECEDING EPILEPSY.

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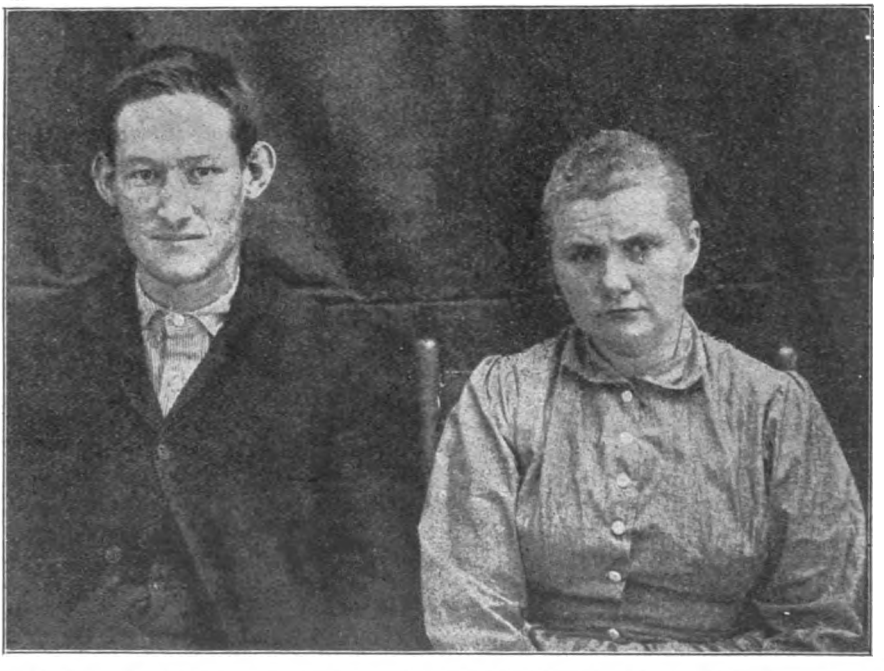
to have a little too much land than too little. We have at Sonyea 1,895 acres, on which it is proposed ultimately to place 1,800 people. At the Craig Colony nature provided a happy and effective natural barrier between the two sexes in the form of an immense gorge, the men living to the west, the women to the east of it, some of the houses being more than a mile apart.

Purity and abundance of water supply, such as we have at Sonyea, are among the first great essentials. The value of good water is enhanced by effective drainage. The long, sloping hillsides, dotted with houses, rise gently away from the flat lands of the Genesee Valley. On these lands are filter beds of sand and gravel upon which all the sewage is carried, filtered, and then discharged into a swift flowing stream as pure, innocuous water. The Craig Colony estate, three miles long and a mile and a half wide, is covered over its southern portion with a valuable original hardwood forest embracing 640 acres, a splendid feature in any institution having industrial aims.

The soil is varied, lying in three essentially different strips; that on the east being a fine productive clay, that on the west a rich, sandy loam, easy of cultivation and capable of enormous yields, that on the flat lands, 400 acres in extent, whose soil reaches a depth of five or six feet, being ideal for extensive and diversified farming. The clay on the east makes fine brick, a plant for the purpose having been in operation several years, turning out about half a million annually, with a net profit of $2,500 to $3,000 a year. This industry is carried on almost wholly by epileptic labor. The clay deposits cover 135 acres, enough to furnish raw material for a period of some 200 years at the present rate of consumption. The garden, now 75 acres in extent, but capable of enlargement to 300 or 400 acres when required, is made to yield, almost entirely through epileptic labor, all the vegetables required by a village of 1,000 persons during the summer and enough besides to can for use during the winter months. Last season we sold a surplus of 8,000 cans to other institutions. There are now about 600 acres under cultivation on the farm, the chief prod-



TYPES OF FEEBLE MINDED: THESE MAKE GOOD COLONISTS.

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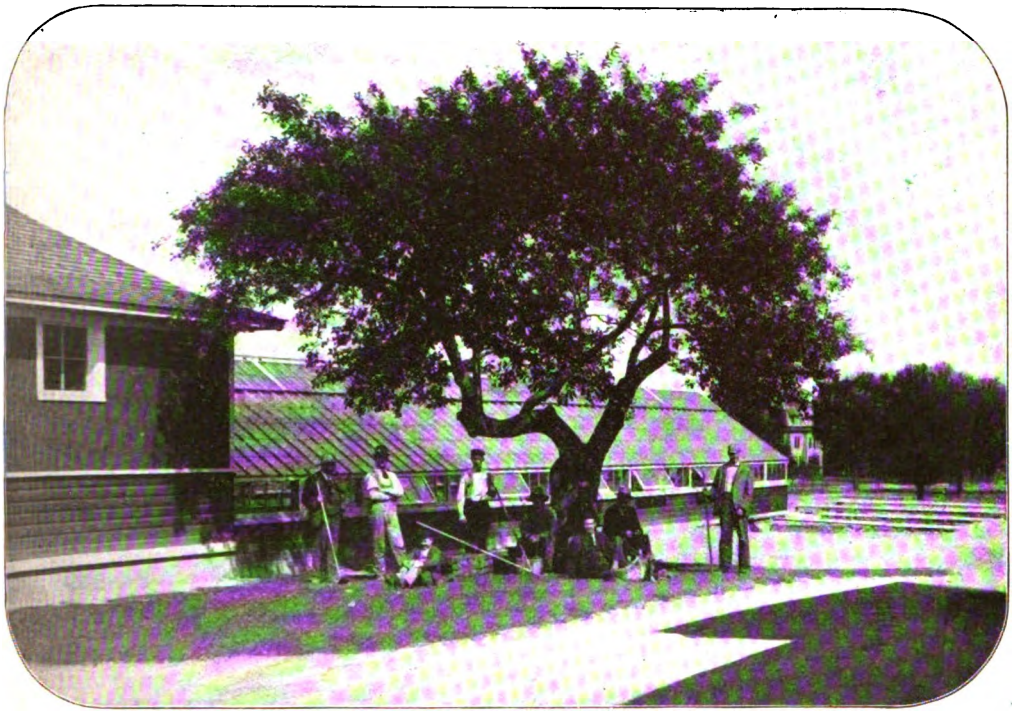

EPILEPTIC GARDENERS AT CRAIG COLONY.

ucts raised being wheat, oats, hay, potatoes, corn, and peas.

It is difficult to appreciate the great value of the agricultural side of a colony like this as represented in the farm and garden, in its 40 acres of fruits of all kinds, its large milk supply, poultry, sheep, and the like, without understanding the enormous good such things do the epileptic in two ways: First—in providing him with the food supplies most suited to his needs at the minimum cost, and, second, in having him produce them by his own labor. This combination is the chief link in the long chain that goes to make up the ideal in colony life. Fail to forge such a link into such a chain and its whole value will be destroyed.

The colonists attend schools and acquire trades. At present about 100 of the younger are engaged in getting educations adapted to their needs. They are graded into classes, with teachers for each class. The boys attend the Sloyd School, which fits them in two or three years to take up advanced carpentry. They build houses and make furniture. Others are apprenticed to the painter, the upholsterer, the printer, the blacksmith, the mason, the engineer, the laundryman, and other artisans; all becoming in time proficient in their several fields. They have short hours of labor and are led, not driven, to work. They have plenty of time for amusement and recreation, indulging in baseball, football, indoor games of all kinds, reading, getting up stage plays, and spending their time when free from duty as they desire, or as people in ordinary communities do.

Just here comes in the most valuable part of it all. All are free. That is, all who have enough mind to permit them to exercise self care to a safe extent. There are no barred windows or locked doors, save for the few whose safety demands it; and yet under this liberal system less than one per cent. leave the colony without permission. This is the finest feature of the entire scheme, the feature of perfect freedom. We have some trouble, to be sure, for we are dealing with human nature diseased, human nature pathologically modified, which makes illogical conduct easy, even necessary, because it is unavoidable. It is my conviction that many institutions would do greater good if they would adopt measures of greater freedom toward those they care for. Witness the

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ONE OF THE EPILEPTIC HOMES AT CRAIG COLONY.

benefits derived from the abolition of forms of bodily restraint applied to the insane, and forms of restraint in the way of walls and high fences about insane hospital buildings during the past quarter century. A notable revolution in this respect has been at work since Pinel struck the manacles from the hands of the insane at the old Salpêtrière more than a hundred years ago, when he said, "I am convinced that these lunatics are so unmanageable only because they are robbed of air and liberty, and I dare to hope much from the opposite means of treatment."

From a knowledge acquired through experience in an institution where home-life was impossible, and from a knowledge of the home-life conditions prevailing at the Craig Colony, I have come to believe that the home instinct is the last of the natural desires to die even in a people who suffer mental enfeeblement through chronic and far-reaching diseases. These people are perpetually longing for home, and it would seem that the enlightened civilization that assumes their care should appreciate their wants and give them, as far as possible, that which they so earnestly desire.

It may be claimed that the cost of building cottages or small houses is greater than for one building accommodating hundreds; but this opinion is erroneous. It has not been the case at the Craig Colony. The idea that vast numbers of certain classes should live under one roof has prevailed through misconception and too great a reverence for long established precedents.

The model colony, in recognition of the peculiar needs of epileptics, will provide for three classes of dwellings, not including a hospital, as follows:

Class I. should hold anywhere from twelve to eighteen patients, and these patients should be of the best; good enough in every respect to assume the entire care of the household in all its details, under the general supervision of one nurse or employee, who should look after sick patients and make observations of the seizures for the physicians in charge. These small cottages should be as homelike, cozy, and attractive as possible, and no room should hold more than two persons, while one-half of the patients should have single rooms. The half dozen cottages of this kind now in use at the Craig Colony cost less than $390 a bed. They were designed by one of the best known firms of architects in this country, and they are managed continuously without friction of any kind. If insane, idiotic, or low-grade imbecile epileptics are debarred, approximately twenty per cent. of all the colonists will live in houses of the type of Class I.

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Houses in Class II. should be large enough to accommodate from twenty-five to thirty-five persons, and should be in charge of two employees—cook and nurse. These dwellings need to be more numerous, for in them the great middle class, numbering from sixty to seventy per cent. of the entire population, will find a home. They should have light and airy rooms, large hat and coat rooms, smoking and sitting-rooms for men, and plenty of closet and shelf space—for most of these people find comfort in looking after their individual possessions—ample verandas, reading and writing-rooms. To lessen the danger from fire, these houses should not be grouped closer together than seventy-five to one hundred feet, nor more than 100 to 150 feet apart, in order that they may be heated from one central point, and that all the patients of a group may use one shower or rain bath, there being several groups in all. Some houses need individual bath tubs for sick or feeble persons; but great economy of time will be gained if central bathing and heating plants are established.

Class III. should consist of infirmaries—buildings combining home and hospital—for the use of perpetually bed-ridden, paralytic, or other helpless cases. These houses should be large enough to care for from ten per cent. to twenty per cent. of the epileptic colony, and one such structure should be provided for each sex. Each building should contain isolation rooms for cases mentally disturbed, a common feature among many epileptics.

There is one minor point about the homes which each colony may prefer to settle for itself, and that is, the exterior design of buildings. Some colonies, especially in England, have proceeded on the principle that uniformity in shape, design and color should not prevail; while at the Craig Colony, in New York, under the advice of eminent architects, thirty-seven cottages, comprising the main groups in the male and female divisions, are similar in exterior design and internal arrangement, but not as to capacity. They are pure white outside, have red roofs, and are fairly pure specimens of Spanish architecture—a style that always lends an added beauty to appropriate settings of forests, verdant fields, and blooming flowers.

In preparing places of residence for assistants, we should follow out the home idea, and for all heads of departments and chief officers, build cottages for their use. In the country, where space is plentiful, it is better for reasons of health and individual comfort not to crowd employees into a small space on the tenement house plan,

SLOYD SCHOOL OF WOODWORKING AT CRAIG COLONY.

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but to scatter them at intervals over the premises. By all means give them individual homes.

In addition to homes for patients, an ideal colony should have the following buildings:

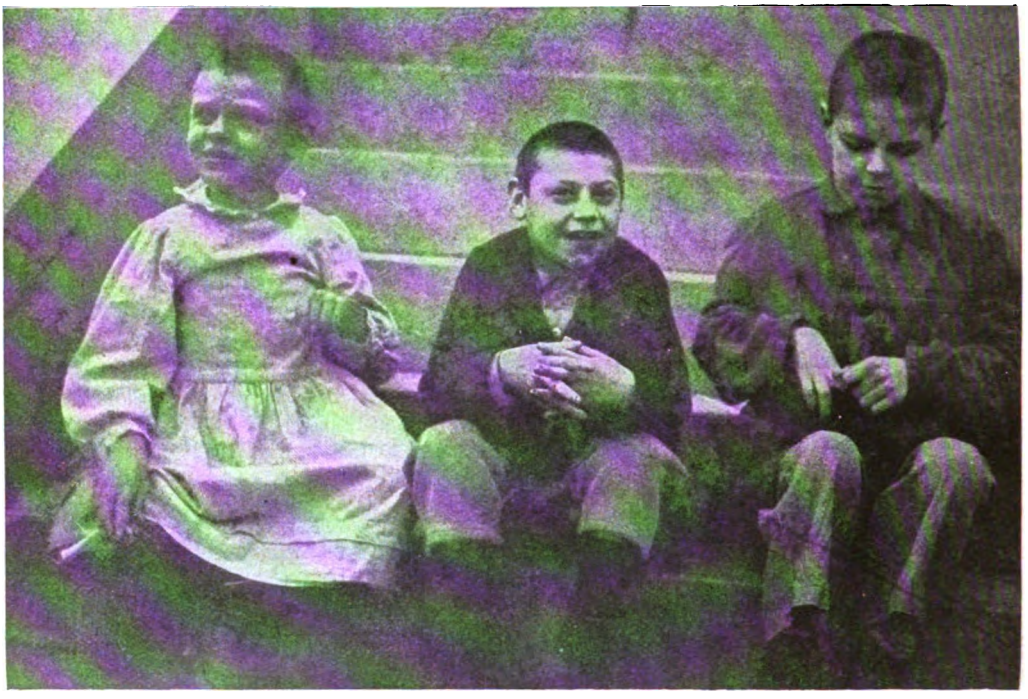
1. A house for administrative work, containing no patients, to be regulated in size by the ultimate size of the colony.

2. A hospital building, complete in equipment and thoroughly modern in every respect, for the treatment of acute medical and surgical cases.

3. Industrial buildings, including laundry, power plants, and bakery, shops for new and repair work in wood, iron, printing, upholstery, leather, plumbing, painting, electric and steam engineering, tailoring, shoemaking and dressmaking.

4. Special industrial buildings for educational purposes; those for men to include Sloyd school, trades school, carpenter shop, and nearly all the above to be used in an elementary way by apprentices to fit them for higher and more practical work along similar lines. For the women, laundering, sewing, knitting by hand and machine, darning, rug weaving, basket making, and the domestic arts should be engaged in.

An ideal colony for epileptics will not fail to make provision for a laboratory for original study and research. It is not enough to feel that we have done our whole duty in providing homes for the care and maintenance of epileptics; a broader duty demands that we use to the fullest extent all the resources at our command for the scientific study and skilled treatment of this obstinate malady, not only on account of the incalculable good we may do those under our immediate care, but for the possible benefit of like sufferers at large.



TYPES OF IDIOTS; WHO INCIDENTALLY HAVE EPILEPTIC CONVULSIONS. THIS CLASS IS NOT SUITED TO COLONY LIFE.

The segregation of epileptics in colonies has a too often forgotten value in that it keeps them from producing a progeny defective in the same, or even in a worse way. The value of this feature cannot be overestimated. Epileptics should not marry. In fully twoscore of cases within my knowledge in which the husband or wife had the disease prior to marriage and unknown to the other, extreme unhappiness, followed by abandonment, has been the result.

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Where To Go Fishing.

BY

E. HOUGH.

THE game fishes of America that have the greatest interest from a popular standpoint, more especially from the standpoint of the Western angler, are the brook trout, the rainbow trout, the black bass, the muskellunge and the mountain trout. Except in parts of the Rocky Mountains the grayling is now practically extinct; and although a few are to be obtained in one or two remote streams in the southern peninsula of Michigan, the grayling is no longer entitled to a place in the angler's list.

The brook trout may, in broad terms, be said to be native to the United States and Canada, as far west as the Rocky Mountains, as far north as the Arctic-bound streams, and as far south as the lower edge of the Great Lakes. So far as the Chicago angler is concerned, the States of Wisconsin and Michigan offer the greatest attractions in fishing for the brook trout. This fish, beautiful, delightful, and evasive, has been known to generations of American anglers, and it is a comforting reflection to believe that it may continue to be so known. In fact, fishing for the brook trout is better in the States of Wisconsin and Michigan to-day than it was ten years ago. Protection and propagation have accomplished this very desirable result, and it is believed that as the years go by the American people, realizing the value of their heritage in the wild life of the streams, will increase it and care for it more and more.

Brook trout fishing in the West is a fascinating sport, as it is anywhere in the world where the trout is to be found, though we do not have fish of so great size in our Western States as is the case in the wildernesses of Maine and Canada. New Brunswick, Quebec, Ontario—all these, in their lakes and larger rivers, offer attractions which, in plain truth, cannot be equaled by the streams of the Western States. Now and again we get a big trout in our Western waters, but as a rule the little rivers of Wisconsin and Michigan do

NEAR MINOCQUA LAKE, WIS.

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not offer heavy fish as a regular thing, a pound trout being quite beyond the average. Most of the trout taken in Wisconsin fall below the eight-inch average. On some streams in Michigan, such as the Au Sable River and its tributaries, there is legal prohibition against keeping any trout less than eight inches in length. This raises the general standard on these streams distinctly, and a basket of lawful fish taken on one of these rivers is much superior to that taken on a Wisconsin water, for instance, where there is no law barring an angler from retaining little fingerlings. The establishment of rainbow trout in many of the Michigan and Wisconsin streams is gradually raising the weight of the angler's catch. Some think the rainbow trout is a nuisance, and others believe it to be a distinct acquisition. It grows heavier than the brook trout, and more rapidly. It is undoubtedly a freer riser to a fly throughout its life, a freer fighter, and is in all ways a more sporting fish. When it gets to the table it is another matter. In respect of culinary desirability there is no fish the equals the old-time *fontinalis*.

A NORTHERN TROUT STREAM.

As a fishing ground, there is no stream in the West that naturally surpasses the beautiful Au Sable River of Michigan, though this stream's great popularity makes it hard hit every year by anglers of all sorts and conditions. Originally a peerless grayling stream, it was first planted with brook trout by the State Fish Commission, and later with rainbow trout. The latter fish is now gradually taking possession of the deeper reaches of the stream. Even yet the Au Sable is a magnificent angling stream, and for the first two or three weeks in May is a delectable fishing ground.

Slagle Creek, near Kalkaska, Mich., is a good trout stream to-day, having once in a while some very fine specimens. Out of Alpena are several streams, tributaries of the Thunder Bay River, which run deep and cold enough to carry handsome trout. Since these streams are regularly stocked, one may depend on attaining some really keen sport at fly-fishing here, as the fish rise well to the artificial lure, preferring, as is the case very often with wild or native trout, the rather large and bright patterns of flies.

The Jordan, the Pine, and the Sturgeon rivers, all of Michigan South Peninsula, are stocked with trout now, though the grayling is to be called extinct there. In the lower part of the peninsula the Boardman River offers fine fishing for brook and rainbow trout, under proper conditions, the little town of Mayfield being the best entry point here. Another famous stream, and perhaps one of the very best in Michigan South Peninsula, is the Père Marquette River, which offers both brook and rainbow trout, the latter in weight sometimes of three or four pounds. This stream, reached via Baldwin, is a sporting water of high rank. The headwaters of the Manistee River, the Pine River, and the Little Manistee River, all of mid-peninsula, are streams quite worth keeping on one's list.

In Wisconsin, good trout-waters may be reached within two hundred miles or less of Chicago. The White River, Straw Creek, Willow Creek, Chaffee Creek, Hall

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Creek, and the lower reaches of the Pine River, where that stream is not under preserve, all offer fairly good trout fishing upon occasion, in a region which is naturally a splendid one for trout. These streams are sandy bottomed, spring fed, crooked, and occasionally deep. The McCann River of that same district is an erstwhile famous stream, though it offers but poor fishing to-day. It resembles the Little Manistee of Michigan, and is a lovely stream for trout, if only it had trout in it. Some heavy rainbows are taken even yet in the McCann. It is thought to be a bit warm for the best welfare of *fontinalis,* but the rainbow will live in a warmer stream than a brook trout. In that same district is the lovely stream known as the Pine River, a water which perhaps holds naturally as much trout food as any that ever flowed; but the choicest part of this river is preserved and cannot be fished in by the public. This river, or rather the lower reaches of it, which offer open fishing, can be reached from the village of Pine River, Wisconsin, or from Poysipi. Boat from Oshkosh to Tustin, and livery thence, is the best way to get to these villages.

FOREST LAKE, WIS.

The Menominee Brule River, once famous, is now not of much account. The Upper Brule is in part preserved and wholly fished, offering nothing like the fishing that it once did. The Prairie River, via Merrill, on the Chicago, Milwaukee and St. Paul, is a pretty little river and is stocked every year, but is hit hard. The head of the La Crosse River, via Sparta, Wis., offers fairly good trout-fishing, and there are other streams out of Sparta. There are a few creeks also to be reached from Eau Claire, Wisconsin, but these are not so good for trout-fishing. The branches of the Pike River, in Wisconsin, offer good sport and are regularly

GREEN LAKE, WIS.

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SCENE ON FOREST LAKE, WIS.

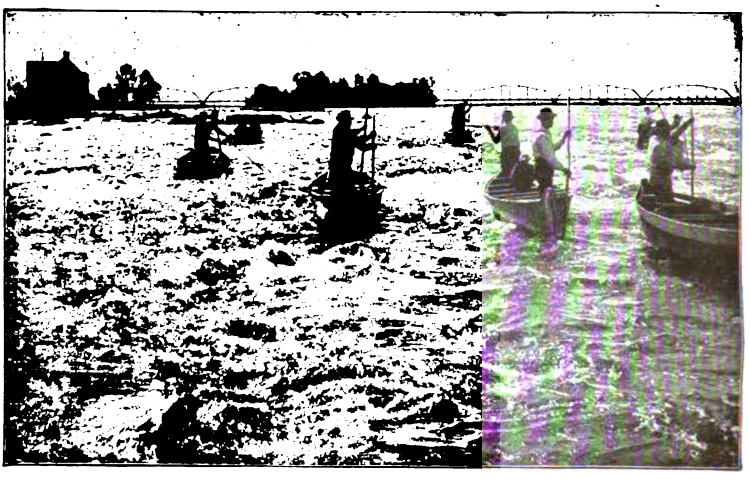
stocked, but the best of these waters are preserved by clubs to-day. The Pine, the Paint, and the Fence are all streams which offer good sport upon occasion, and the Ontonagon is another river which offers some good fishing in late May and early June. Of the rivers above mentioned, those reached from Wautoma, Sparta, and Merrill are earlier than the streams last mentioned, that is to say trout will take the fly there earlier in the season.

Northward, at the further extreme of Wisconsin, and in the North Peninsula of Michigan, there are many rivers which flow into Lake Superior and Lake Michigan which offer better trout-fishing than the smaller streams last mentioned. The Salmon Trout River is well preserved, the Anne River also has a club house on it. The Two Heart River is still open and very good fishing, although it is rather inaccessible. Munising, Michigan, has good trout-fishing accessible from it. The Escanaba is a fair river upon occasion, and so is the Sturgeon, both rather inaccessible on their best reaches. Any trout fisherman will tell you, in addition, of scores of less known rivers, among which each is certain to have some favorite.

Upper Minnesota and Western Wisconsin have additional trout streams, although Minnesota has not anything like the opportunity in this line that is enjoyed by Wisconsin. There are some few preserved streams in Minnesota.

As the method of fishing brook trout and rainbow trout is practically the same, and as they occupy the same rivers, it will not be necessary to differentiate localities in the case of these two different species.

When it comes to the question of black bass, one might easily write a book; indeed, two or three books have been written on how to take this splendid game fish. With the method of his capture we are not concerned herein. As to the localities for its capture there are offered numbers of good localities near the city of Chicago, on the waters of lower Wisconsin, of lower Michigan, of upper Indiana, upper Illi-



INDIANS FISHING IN SOO RAPIDS.

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CAMPING GROUNDS AT FOX LAKE, ILL.

nois, and middle Minnesota. The Illinois River is naturally a great highway for the black bass, and had not the Illinois State Fish Commission, by an act of unparalleled folly, introduced that imported nuisance, the German carp, all the waters tributary to this stream would be full of black bass to-day. The Kankakee River was formerly a splendid water for small mouth and large mouth black bass. The Fox River, a tributary of the same waterway, is another grand fishing stream, by natural rights. The whole Fox Lake chain, well known to Chicago anglers, still carries numbers of big-mouth black bass. The lower counties of Wisconsin also abound in this fish. The Oconomowoc lakes, the Madison lakes, Green Lake, even Geneva Lake, although much infested by summer cottages, offer even yet fairly good bass-fishing at times. The Lauderdale chain, via Elkhorn, is good bass water. I have very often had splendid sport in the lakes near the little village of Mukwonago, in Waukesha County, in water not suspected even by residents to abound in large black bass.

In upper Indiana there is a series of lakes formed by the glacial moraine at the foot of Lake Michigan, lying on that high divide which the eastbound railroads have difficulty in climbing. Two or three of these lakes can be reached from the little village of Westville, Indiana, and I have sometimes found, unsuspected, good sport near that point. Diamond Lake in lower Michigan is a place sometimes visited by the expert fisherman, although much harried. At Pawpaw Lake good bass are occasionally taken. Gun Lake, Michigan, is a very good water to have in mind. The Grand River, the Kalamazoo River and the St. Joseph River are all streams which carry both large and small mouth bass, and which are sporting waters when properly approached. Indeed, bass may be taken in any one of the hundreds of streams along this same parallel of latitude as far

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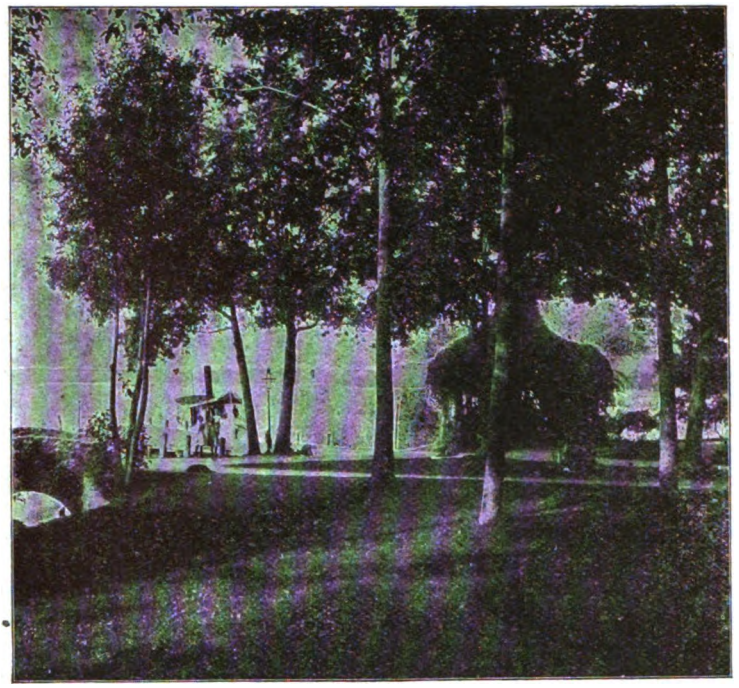

LAKE GENEVA, WIS.

west as the Missouri River. I have found black bass far out in the heart of Kansas, where no one suspected that they had ever appeared. The Skunk River, Des Moines River, Iowa River, the Cedar River, all tributaries of the Mississippi, carry black bass.

I need hardly mention the attractions of the thousands of Wisconsin pine woods lakes, and of that magnificent lake country of Minnesota which is tributary to the headwaters of the Mississippi River. Here one can have bass fishing until he actually tires of it. I have known one New York biped, who perhaps ought more properly to have been called a quadruped, who in one day took three hundred black bass from a Minnesota lake. Catches of one hundred a day are of frequent occurrence. It is a custom at the best resorts to put back to the water nearly all the catch of black bass. Were this not the case the fishing would of course be ruined in a short time, for to-day there are more anglers than angling waters available.

The best black bass fishing in America, and the best fly-fishing in the world, bar none, is to be found on the upper reaches of the Mississippi River, say from La Crosse up, and preferably below St. Paul. The black bass here are the small mouth variety, and they rise clean to the fly, and in the heavy deep waters offer a fight which I firmly believe is not equaled in any variety of angling on this continent.

As to muskellunge-fishing, it cannot be had in America in the quality attained ten or fifteen years ago. The American greed and lack of all restraint—and I believe this to be the most lawless people in the world—has had its way with this one of our great game fishes. To-day a thirty or forty pound muskellunge, taken anywhere in Wisconsin, is a matter of news and much telegraphing, and usually of a big banquet here in the city, if the lucky man hail from Chicago. To be sure, muskellunge can still be taken on the Manitowish chain, the Spider Lake, Turtle Lake, the Eagle chains, the Thousand Islands Lakes; in short, any one of a hundred different lakes tributary to the Mississippi River. The Manitowish, the Turtle, the Flambeau, and many nameless thoroughfares all drain these waters into the Wisconsin or the Mississippi River, and these waters all naturally bear the muskellunge. This fish is not found in any waters which head on the divide and flow northward into Lake Superior. This is true also in the State of Minnesota, where perhaps one is safer to go for big muskellunge now than in Wisconsin. The great northern pike may be found in sizes and characteristics in upper Minnesota which make it the peer of the muskellunge, but if you strike Saskatchewan or Lake-of-the-Woods waters you do not meet muskellunge.

The big and deep lakes which drain into the head of the Mississippi River, in the pine country of Minnesota, still carry some muskellunge, and forty pounders have been reported from that district within the last

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MUSKELLUNGE CAUGHT IN BIG TOMAHAWK LAKE.

two years. The town of Park Rapids, Minnesota, is good to have in mind if one wants muskellunge in that State. If one wants to go blindly at it in Wisconsin, he can get off at Manitowish and find plenty of guides who will assure him of all sorts of muskellunge. Perhaps he may get a good one. He is certain to get small ones. Squirrel Lake is a good muskellunge water, even to-day. Minocqua and Woodruff are muskellunge points. So are Arbor Vitæ and Star Lake, of the same district. It is said that in Carl Lake, near Minocqua, there was turned loose the famous 102-pound muskellunge that was taken in the nets of the Wisconsin State Fish Commission and used in their spawn-gathering operations two years ago.

The muskellunge is native to the Ohio River, although this fact is not known to many anglers. It is rarely seen so far southward. Another muskellunge district is that of Canada and the Great Lakes. The St. Lawrence River muskellunge differs in some characteristics from that most usually found in Wisconsin. It may be said that muskellunge are found in the South Peninsula of Michigan, but not in very great numbers in these days. The fish is native to the Great Lakes, though not to Superior or upper Lake Michigan or streams tributary to the Great Lakes. I have seen a specimen now and then taken in the nets of fishermen on the St. Clair Flats, though this is rare to-day. It may be news to some readers to know that the muskellunge was formerly native to the Chicago River, as well as the black bass and the wall-eyed pike, and there are residents who can tell of the days when they angled for them along shores now covered thick with lofty buildings.

The wall-eyed pike is a fish that offers occasional sport to the man who is trolling or casting bait, but although it is a splendid fish upon the table, and not devoid of a certain sporting quality, it is not what is strictly known as a game fish by those exact in such matters. The fishermen for muskellunge or black bass in Wisconsin or

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Minnesota often take numbers of these fish on bait or spoon. The little pickerel or "snake" is a worse and still more cordially hated nuisance.

It will not be necessary to speak of that prince of American fishes, the salmon. The salmon rivers of Canada are now practically possessions of the wealthy few, and the average man of limited means is lucky to get even an invitation to fish in these waters. The Atlantic salmon, therefore, may be considered as *taboo* for the American angler. The same fish exists in yet greater size and numbers on the Pacific coast, but unfortunately it does not rise freely to the fly. Some say that it never rises to the fly. It can be taken on roe bait, and rises to some species of spoon, but on the whole it does not classify as a great sporting factor with anglers. The big trout of the California, Oregon, and Washington rivers quite outweigh it in this regard.

GREEN LAKE, WIS.

In coming to the last of the fishes of general interest to Western anglers, the mountain trout, native to scores of streams from the British possessions to New Mexico, it will not be necessary to go into specifications regarding different species of this fish. That most generally known is *Salmo mykiss,* the scientific name of the fish that is generally called cutthroat trout. The big Dolly Varden trout of the mountain lakes is not to be confused with this fish, which is naturally confined to the bold and rushing rivers of the Rockies. In this habitat it offers splendid sport, the best of the Rocky Mountain fishing coming at midsummer, or the latter part of summer, at a time when the cream of the Eastern trout fishing is gone.

The St. Mary's country of upper Montana, the Two Medicine River, and any number of smaller waters of that part of the upper Rockies offer good fishing for the mountain trout, and they rise to the fly readily. Here and there all the way down the backbone of the continent, to the Yellowstone Park, good trout-fishing may be found, and in and upon the edge of the Yellowstone Park sport may be had of princely character, more especially in the Henry's Lake country, in parts of the Madison, and in the upper waters of the Snake River, below and to the west of Yellowstone Park.

There are scores of streams, such as the Rosebud tributaries, other Yellowstone affluents, and indeed hundreds of rivers of middle and western Montana, which abound in this splendid game fish. It is to be found, of course, over much of Colorado, even in these days of much fishing. The Rio Grande River and the Gunnison are two famous trout streams by nature. Wagon Wheel Gap is a noted fishing point on the Rio Grande, and further down, at Del Norte, one may expect trout not like our Eastern babies, but grand, heavy fish, running up as high as four, five or six pounds.

The Conejos River of New Mexico, the upper waters of the Pecos, in that same territory, and, further to the south, the strange little mountain streams like the Bonita, the Ruidoso, Eagle Creek, and others, offer, or did offer until recently, sport at smaller specimens of mountain trout. How they got into these rivers is a question which no man can settle beyond a peradventure. These streams, or those into which they run, absolutely disappear in the sandy desert to the east of these lower spurs of the Rockies. They perhaps reappear by seepage and drain into the Pecos waters, but to all intents and purposes they are rivers without any mouths. I have had splendid fishing on the Ruidoso River, in the Mescalero Apache Reservation, which was at that time, more than twenty years

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ago, a rather dangerous country for tourists to visit.

Every man who knows the Rockies loves them, and is resolved to go again to visit them. If he be not well versed as to the better fishing localities, he can to a certain extent depend upon railway folders, although these are hugely incorrect for the most part. Naturally when it comes to speaking of all the fishing points of a country fifteen hundred miles in extent, north and south, the task is a somewhat large one. Trout fishing in the Rocky Mountains is productive of big trout, as large as the famous streams of New Brunswick and Quebec are apt to furnish. As to the surroundings, there is nothing to equal the Rockies in any part of the world. Canada is heavily overgrown, misty, dim, depressing upon many occasions. Trout fishing in the Rocky Mountains is an experience carrying with it an absolute exaltation.

Indeed, almost any sort of fishing, whether one go after sunfish, croppies, and perch, or after these more lordly specimens of game fish which have been enumerated, is an experience for which no man can be the worse. The West, as we have seen in part, is still abounding in opportunities for this innocent and rejuvenating pastime.

(The cuts on pages 897, 901 and 903 are used by courtesy of the Chicago, Milwaukee and St. Paul Railway, and the cuts on pages 898, 899, 900, 902 and 904 by courtesy of the Chicago and Northwestern Railroad.)

FOLKSONG AND CLASSICAL MUSIC.—The simplicity of the folksong is to the complexity of the classical musical composition as the wild briar rose to the many-folded garden rose. In each case the latter is developed from the former by cultivation. All the greatest composers, like all the greatest poets, got their inspiration from a study of folksong. Scotch folksong has been elaborated upon with wonderful effect by both Schubert and Schumann. Even Beethoven, whose deafness prevented him from knowing much unwritten song, used folk themes native and foreign, notably in his "Seventh Symphony." Owing to the difficult simplicity of the folksong, the actual creation of one is usually beyond the skill of the classicist. Yet Weber, Mozart, and Mendelssohn have produced songs that must be classed in the folk-music of Germany. The difficulty here in the way of the classicist is that his production of an art folksong is once for all the composition of an individual, whereas the true folksong is not the product of one mind, but a piece that has had an evolutionary development in many minds, so that the individuality of no one artist necessarily predominates in it. The simple directness of the people's music is achieved in some parts of Mozart's "The Magic Flute." Mendelssohn caught the spirit of the folksong of both Germany and Scotland. Weber got the inspiration for his folk-airs from Koerner. This great soldier-poet, who in premonition of his early death on the battlefield, which came at twenty-two, wrote his fiery "Sword Song," picturing the wedding of a warrior to his weapon.

Nothing has influenced musical form more than folk-dances. Classical music has been developed from folk-dances almost as much as from folksongs. The Troubadours and Minnesingers of the thirteenth century, by uniting the quick dance of the peasantry with the slow dance of the aristocracy, beginning and ending with the more rapid movement, obtained the two main elements of musical form, symmetry and contrast. All modern composers are keenly sensitive to the effect produced by the folk-dances. There is a hop-waltz in Beethoven's "Sixth Symphony," Brahms has enriched a series of Hungarian dances with noble harmonies, Liszt makes free use in his most effective passages of the Hungarian czardas, a kind of jig, Grieg introduces in more than one of his masterpieces the robust movement of the acrobatic Norwegian peasant-dance called the "Halling." The similar Russian dance known as the "Kamarinskaia" has been employed by Tschaikowsky even in his symphonies.

From folksong was developed counterpoint, the support of one melody by another instead of by chords. As early as the twelfth century it was customary for a musician to combine a melody of his own composition with one familiar to the people. In like manner, the church composers sought to accentuate their skill by combining melodies, using sacred words only in the parts that they added as counterpoint to a folksong.

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The German Emperor and World Politics.

BY

JESSE MACY, M. A., LL. D.,
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A FEW months ago Germany and England were engaged in the coercion of the State of Venezuela in a manner which threatened the peace of neighboring States. Many surmises are in the air as to what was, in that affair, the real motive of the allied powers. One prevailing idea has been that the German Emperor, seeking occasion for extending his dominions in the New World, has formed designs upon portions of South America. The careful London *Spectator* definitely accused Emperor William of a deep-laid scheme to foment a quarrel between England and the United States.

EMPEROR WILLIAM.
In the uniform of his Death's Head Hussars.

A railway is proposed through Asia Minor to the Persian Gulf, under the patronage of the Emperor, and the British government has just escaped being drawn into an alliance with Germany for its construction and use. Critics of the plan accuse the Kaiser of a deliberate purpose to secure English capital to perfect a German industrial and political enterprise, and, at the same time, to involve England in a disastrous dispute with Russia. Some years ago, terrible massacres of Christians took place in Armenia. The leading powers of Europe were under treaty obligations to prevent the continuance of the outrages, but we are told that their way was blocked by the interference of the German monarch.

These are but samples of the charges brought against William II. in current discussion of world politics. Favorable criticisms are also not lacking. The Emperor has been accounted the great preserver of the peace of Europe and he is shown to have made progress in soothing the exasperated feelings of the French.

While nearly every specific statement concerning the motives and the policy of the head of the German empire is subject to denial, since all are in the main matters of mere opinion, it is nevertheless true that taken together they single out the Kaiser as the greatest personal factor in the world politics of to-day. The great autocrat of all the Russias, though nominally absolute, seems to be conditioned and thwarted by adverse and unmanageable forces, as the Emperor is not, and the Tzar is, therefore, really less free.

How happens it that the head of one

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of the most enlightened of the modern States, with a government resting upon constitutional guaranties, and in the most democratic of all the ages, holds the commanding position in domestic and foreign politics? The question admits of a definite and satisfactory answer.

After ages of petty jealousies and unceasing strife the North-German States have become thoroughly welded into a harmonious and united Empire. Coincident with the triumph of united Germany came a great development in manufacture and commerce and to the Germans has suddenly dawned the consciousness that they are a great, industrious, and progressive people. Not only have these changes come suddenly, they have come in such a way as to cause the credit for the marvelous national advance to accrue to one or two individuals. After the Revolution of 1848, which drove the King of Prussia into exile, the old Emperor, William I., who was then Crown Prince of Prussia, formed a plan for reorganizing the Prussian army, which was carried out in the teeth of the most determined opposition. In the meantime, the Crown Prince became Regent, and later King William IV., of Prussia.

THE STATE DINNER GIVEN TO EMPEROR WILLIAM BY THE KING OF ITALY DURING HIS RECENT VISIT.

THE RECENT VISIT OF EMPEROR WILLIAM TO THE POPE.

Throughout his strenuous and persistent endeavor to force the new policy upon the nation he had the effective coöperation of Prince Bismarck. In carrying out the reforms against the strongest popular resistance the King and his followers took their lives in their hands; they dared to violate the laws for the sake of the high ends of state; and the bold initiative of their great leaders forced the German people, in a manner against its will, to a commanding and triumphant position in the eyes of the astonished world.

Not until the reorganized army had triumphed over Denmark, over Austria, and over France were the people reconciled to the King's purpose. Their conversion was thorough and complete. Not unnaturally a conviction became prevalent that the rulers of the German nation were possessed of superior wisdom. The old Emperor was hailed as the Father of all Germany, and the iron Chancellor as one embodying all political foresight. Because in the face of popular opposition practically universal they had compelled the people to accept a policy whose wonderful success suddenly gained for it universal ap-

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THE KAISER IN KHAKI.
Wearing the Khaki uniform of Colonel of the British Royal Dragoons.

proval, they received the unstinted homage of a grateful nation. Such good fortune falls rarely to the lot of a ruler of a great people. It is a still rarer thing for a ruler thus fortunate to be followed by a son and a grandson who succeed in holding the place their predecessor has won. The personal qualities of the present Emperor are such as enable him to utilize to the full the advantages of his inherited position. The people are disposed to trust him as they trust no other agency now available in the State. William II. shows much insight in discerning the real wishes of the people, and he has almost unlimited power, because he has the unbounded confidence of a free and intelligent nation.

It should be borne in mind that the conditions here described are not unfriendly to the development of a true democracy. A monarch who rules as does the German Emperor by popular approval is not likely to become a dangerous tyrant. The forms of constitutional monarchy are carefully observed, and the people are all the time being trained in the use of the machinery of government. Even during the early struggles that led to the union of the German States, when matters were forced contrary to the law, care was taken to legalize every act as soon as possible. When the Emperor fails to convince his people that his policy is for the good of Germany, his peculiar power will be at an end. They realize far more keenly than do Americans or English the singular difficulties of their situation and the need of the most sagacious and far-sighted statesmanship in the conduct of the national affairs. Wedged in as they are between the two powerful and aggressive States of France and Russia, commercial rivalry has brought them

THE NEW GERMAN STATUE ERECTED IN HILLSIDE CEMETERY, PHILADELPHIA.
The first statue erected in America to German soldiers who fell in foreign wars. Made from captured cannon presented by the Kaiser.

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into a condition which threatens conflict with England. The unstable Austrian empire is likely to go to pieces on the death of the present aged Emperor, and when that impending event takes place the resources of Germany will be taxed to their utmost. Indeed, so difficult and so momentous are the problems near at hand for Germany to solve that it scarcely seems the part of wisdom to continue to regard her Emperor, powerful, aggressive, and erratic though he is, as a menace to distant States.

GOLD-EXTRACTING DEVICE.—Edison, the inventor, has devised a scheme for extracting the gold in the "low grade" quartz gravel beds of Arizona, New Mexico, Colorado, Northern Mexico, and Lower California. Gold is to be found in these regions in immense quantities, but the present method of extracting it from the gravel is too expensive to make mining profitable. The old-fashioned placer hydraulic system is lacking, but Mr. Edison thinks he has solved the problem of separating the gold from the gravel by an air blast. His machine has been tried in the desert near Sante Fe with favorable results. It is said that the Edison process reclaims 98 per cent. of the gold from the gravel, while 75 per cent. was washed out by the means employed in hydraulic mining. It may be doubted whether a larger percentage of gold will be saved than by the hydraulic process.

The process is simple. A steam shovel digs the gravel out of the ground; conveyors carry it to sieves that separate it into particles of uniform size. In the separator the gravel falls through a narrow slit before a rotary blower, which drives a full blast of air against the falling mass. The sand and light gravel are blown into a separate compartment, while the particles of gold, being heavier, fall to the bottom of the machine.

Winnowing machines are in vogue in many regions having an insufficient supply of water, but generally the cost of handling the apparatus is so great that the profits are small. Edison's machine can handle large quantities of auriferous earth with a minimum employment of labor. If successful, it will affect mining in the deserts of Australia and other gold countries where water is scarce.

HYBRIDIZATION OF SEA-URCHIN AND STARFISH.—Dr. Jacques Loeb, professor of physiology, University of California, has recently given the first proof that it is not impossible to hybridize animals that are not in close blood relationship. By following the same idea that guided him in his experiments on artificial parthenogenesis, namely, that a slight change in the constitution of the seawater (or the blood) may give tissues properties that they do not possess ordinarily, he has succeeded in fertilizing the eggs of a sea-urchin (*Strongylocentrotus purpuratus*) with the sperm of a starfish (*Asterias ochracea*).

Several remarkable results were educed from Professor Loeb's experiments. He discovered a series of solutions in which the eggs of the sea-urchin can be fertilized by the sperm of the starfish, though such fertilization is impossible in normal seawater. Again, the seawater contains certain substances which, if added to these solutions, prevent such fertilization. But most wonderful of all is the fact that the same solutions in which the eggs of the sea-urchin can be fertilized by the sperm of the starfish render difficult or impossible the fertilization of the same eggs by the sperm of their own species. Yet in the same solutions the eggs of the sea-urchin are very readily fertilized by the sperm of their own species, when those constituents of the seawater are added that inhibit the hybridization of the egg of the sea-urchin with the sperm of the starfish.

Inasmuch as both the pure-blooded larvæ and the parthenogenetic larvæ of the sea-urchin form a skeleton, while the larvæ of the starfish form no skeleton, it is of special interest that the hybrids between the two form no skeleton, or, at best, a very rudimentary one. Professor Loeb concludes that it is not impossible that the spermatozoon of the starfish contains substances that interfere with the formation of a skeleton.

Also, the Professor concludes that these facts may have a bearing upon certain phenomena of infection and immunity. He feels almost convinced that, while in seawater, the eggs of the sea-urchin are immune against the sperm of the starfish, in the artificial solutions they become almost or completely immune against the sperm of their own species, and at the

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same time lose their immunity for the sperm of the starfish. It is a remarkable fact that surprisingly small though very definite quantities of certain constituents of the seawater suffice to reverse the character of the immunity.

MEMORIZING has hitherto generally been effected by mastering a section at a time and repeating its predecessors with each addition. In such a method it is obvious that earlier sections are repeated much more frequently than later ones, and that special effort must be made to connect each section to its neighbors. Both defects would be remedied by memorizing the piece as a whole instead of by sections; and this alternative method has been tried in Germany first upon adults in a psychological laboratory and again upon twelve-year-old school boys. Both tests revealed the superiority of the entire method. Of course, other factors enter into the rapidity with which a given selection can be learned by heart, such as the amount of attention, the familiarity and interest of the subject; but repetition is indispensable.

MICROSCOPE.—A discovery which may have far-reaching results in the field of scientific investigation and do much toward the further solution of the problem of the molecular construction of matter was recently made by two professors of Jena University—H. Siedentopf and R. Zsigmondy. They have discovered a new method of microscopic observation, whereby ultramicroscopic particles are not only made visible, but can also be studied with a view of determining their size. A full description was recently published by the inventors in the German scientific journal *Annalen der Physik* (volume 10, 1903), and reprints of the same are to be had by interested parties by addressing the men above named.

The method consists mainly in a powerful artificial illumination of the particles to be observed. These particles, because of their minuteness, exert no material influence upon the vibratory period of the light waves, and hence appear to the observer as self-illuminating, or luminous objects, by virtue of their reflected light. Since, however, the reflected light is weaker than the original illuminating beam, it is necessary, in order to secure the advantages of an intensified illumination of the particles, to employ the principle of dark-field illumination.

Heretofore, the great imperfection in the method of dark-field illumination has been the failure to eliminate all light reflected from the surfaces of the condensing lens and the microscopic objective. Whenever any of the light of the stronger illuminatory ray mingles with the weaker light reflected from the particle which is being observed, the visibility of that particle is proportionately blurred, just as the light of the rising sun gradually obscures a morning moon. Perfection in dark-field illumination has been attained when none of the light of the illuminatory ray enters the line of vision in the observation of an object through the microscopic objective, and the object is visible solely by virtue of its own reflected light.

This interference of the direct light of the illuminatory ray or of its reflected light from the surfaces of the condensing lens, with the reflected light of the object under observation, is overcome through the application of the principle that when the illuminatory ray is perpendicular to the axis of the microscopic objective any direct light or any light reflected from the surfaces of the condensing lens can no longer enter the line of vision of the observer, and hence can no longer interfere with the reflected light of the particle to be observed; provided that the condensing lens for the illumination of the object and the microscopic objective for the observation of the object are so adjusted as to meet at a common focus (*A*, fig. 1). It will be seen that with this construction no light reflected from the condensing lens (*B*), or passing through it directly, can possibly enter the microscopic objective (*C*), thereby permitting the observer of the particle located at *A* to view the same solely by virtue of its own reflected light.

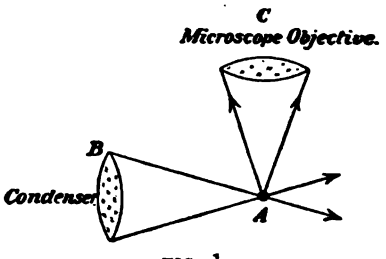

FIG 1.

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This method of dark-field illumination enables the employment of the most powerful sources of illumination for microscopic observation, and for this reason must be considered as a marked advance in the technique of this field.

The principle involved in this new method is well illustrated by the common phenomena of the "visible sunbeam" in a darkened room which is penetrated by a ray of light. Dust particles in the path of the ray, hitherto invisible, become visible when the eye of the observer is at right angles to the direction of the penetrating ray. If, now, the illumination is strengthened through the employment of a more powerful source of light and a condensing lens, and the power of the eye is strengthened by means of a miscroscopic objective, we have all the essentials of the new method of dark-field illumination, as employed by the two Jena professors for rendering visible ultramicroscopic particles.

The figure given below represents an outline drawing of the new illuminating apparatus, reduced to one-tenth of its actual size. It is constructed as follows: By means of a clock heliostat, a ray of light is sent through an iris screen into the dark observation chamber within which is placed the apparatus. The various individual movable parts of the instrument are carefully and accurately mounted upon a metal slide (P) by means of delicately adjustable riders. The beam of light cast into the dark chamber by the heliostat first strikes the telescopic objective (F_1). This lens has a diameter of 100 millimeters (3.94 inches) and condenses the ray so that it measures but 1 millimeter (0.03937 inch) on striking the apparatus (S) which contains an accurately adjustable slit. The size of this slit may be varied, at pleasure, from 5 millimeters (0.19685 inch) to 0.5 millimeter (0.01968 inch) in width (horizontal dimension), and from 0.1 to 2 millimeters (0.00398 to 0.07874 inch) in height (vertical dimension). By virtue of this adjustable slit, the beam of light is made to lie flat, its greatest dimension being horizontal. Behind the adjustable slit a polarizer (N) may be placed, if necessary. The iris screen (J) serves to cut off all light that may arise through reflection from the sides of the adjustable slit (S). Another screen (B) serves to cut off the lower half of the beam, in case an immersion lens is used in the microscope, so as to prevent the intrusion of injurious reflections that may arise in this case. A second telescopic objective (F_2), of a diameter of 80 millimeters (3.15 inches), reduces the size of the flattened beam by one-fourth. This reduced beam is again reduced to one-ninth its size by the microscopic lens in the condenser (K), and in that form strikes the object which is being observed through the microscope (A). In order that the flattened and reduced ray may come to a focus in line with the axis of the examining microscope, the condenser (K) is fitted with sensitive micrometer screws, working at right angles to each other.

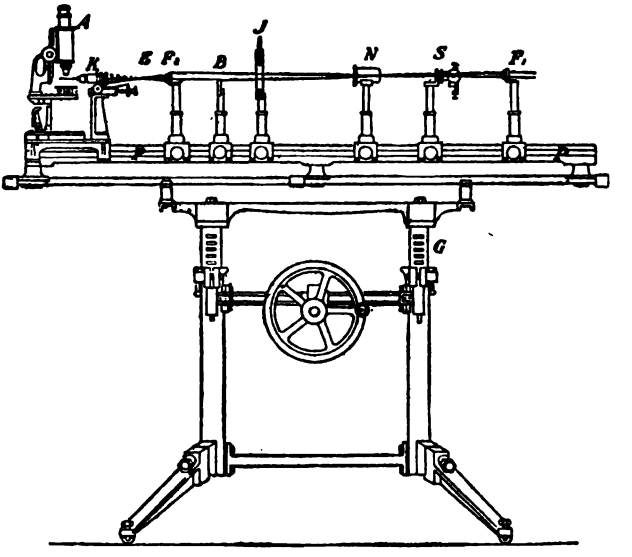

FIG. 2.

By means of this apparatus, the Jena professors have seemingly accomplished what the great Helmholz did not conceive as possible. This physicist declared the limit of microscopic perception to be 0.0001 millimeter* (0.000003937 inch), while it is estimated that this limit has been extended to from 0.000004 to 0.000007 millimeter. That such an achievement promises great things in scientific investigation is readily seen.

*1 millimeter = 0.039737 inch.

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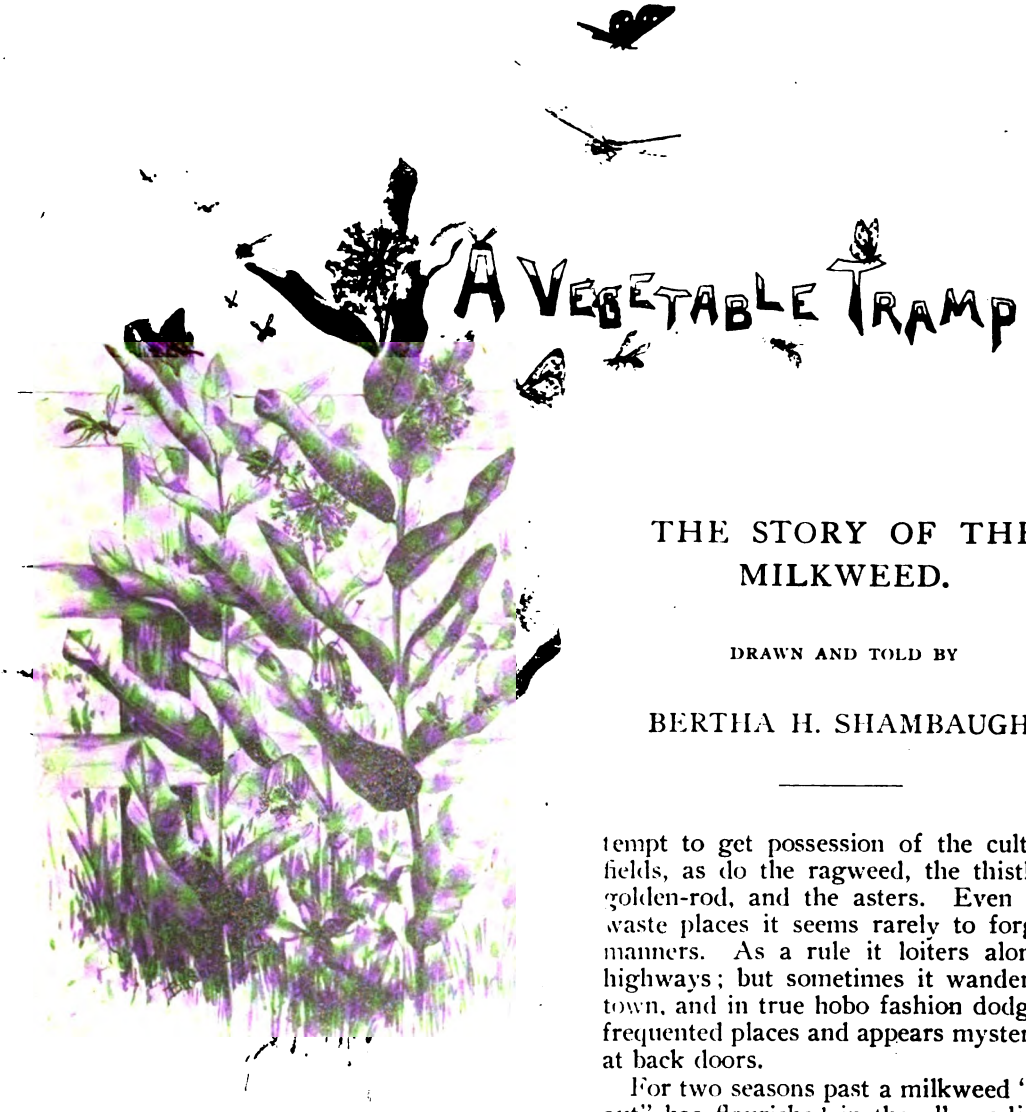

THE STORY OF THE MILKWEED.

DRAWN AND TOLD BY

BERTHA H. SHAMBAUGH.

JOHN BURROUGHS somewhere calls weeds "the tramps of the vegetable kingdom." The analogy is very fitting; for, like the human tramp, these vegetable wanderers range from the picturesquely good-for-nothing to the positively vicious. And like them, too, the former are encouraged in their vagrancy by every tender-hearted householder, while the latter are the subject of constant and more or less ineffectual legislation.

One of the handsomest and best behaved of our vegetable tramps is the common milkweed. It is entitled to a very considerable degree of respect; for, while it flourishes anywhere and everywhere, it doth not behave itself unseemly in an attempt to get possession of the cultivated fields, as do the ragweed, the thistle, the golden-rod, and the asters. Even in the waste places it seems rarely to forget its manners. As a rule it loiters along the highways; but sometimes it wanders into town, and in true hobo fashion dodges the frequented places and appears mysteriously at back doors.

For two seasons past a milkweed "hang-out" has flourished in the alley adjoining my yard; and I am in constant terror lest the street and alley commissioner, in a spasm of civic virtue, should overlook my neighbor's garbage barrel and pounce upon my milkweed patch, or the Village Improvement League should appoint a committee to appeal to my "public pride."

There is nothing so handsome in the whole gamut of the gardener's creation as this very ordinary milkweed in early July, when its broad leaves have curled enough to expose their downy backs and when its purple pompons fill the air with their fragrance. Next to the orchids the milkweed blossom is the most complex and curiously fashioned of vegetable mechanisms. It is so complex and so curious

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that botanists have only recently begun to understand its significance. There are from sixty to one hundred of these wonderful little blossoms in each pompon.

The two outer whorls of the flower, which usually constitute the showy part of a blossom, are very ordinary affairs—in the full-blown blossom reflexed against the stem as if to be got rid of as soon as possible. It is in the center of the blossom that Nature seems to have exerted all her ingenuity. The stamens are joined together in a ring around the sticky stigma. Behind each stamen and united with it is a curious waxy, ear-like appendage (*a*, Fig. I) with a tiny horn projecting from its center (*b*, Fig. I). These ear-like appendages, with their projecting horns, form a crown at the summit of the flower (*x*, Fig. II).

In the ordinary blossom the pollen is a fine dust which powders the legs of its insect visitors and is thus carried from flower to flower. Not so in the milkweed. Here the pollen of each stamen is gathered in two waxy pollen masses resembling a pair of saddle-bags (*d*, Fig. I). The two bags are joined together at their summits by slender threads to a tiny black gland. Each of the five horns of the crown is full of honey, and as the persistent insect visitor searches for these hidden sweets his feet are sure to come in contact with some of the tiny black glands and their accompanying saddle-bags. And when he flies away his legs are fringed with yellow tags. As he brushes past the sticky stigma of the next flower in search of more honey some of these pollen bags are pretty apt to adhere to it. And thus Dame Nature's object is achieved—the flower is fertilized.

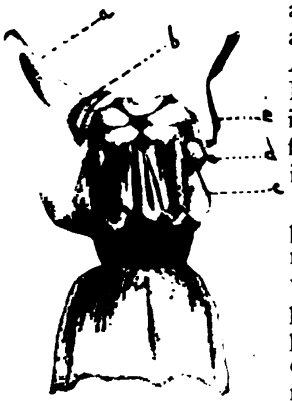

Fig. I.

Ususally these pollen masses do not interfere with an insect's plans or prospects and he does not seem to mind at all being obliged to pay for his supper by carrying them about. But sometimes an insect becomes so ensnarled with threads and pollen bags that he falls to the ground and perishes. Occasionally an insect that is in a hurry and doesn't mind his business gets his legs caught in the anther fissure where the saddle-bags are stored (*c*, Fig. I), and then he must needs give a long pull and a strong pull to free himself. Recently I saw a blustering "bumble-bee" held captive in this manner. He tugged and kicked so vigorously that he swayed the whole milkweed stalk. And how he scolded! It was enough to frighten the whole insect assemblage that hovered about the place. In almost every cluster of blossoms there are to be found, protruding from these fissures, detached legs (*c*, Fig. I), which tell the tale of numerous tragedies.

Fig. II.

With five horns of honey to a blossom and several hundred blossoms to a stalk, we might expect to find about the milkweed pompons representatives of most of the honey-gatherers of the region. But I

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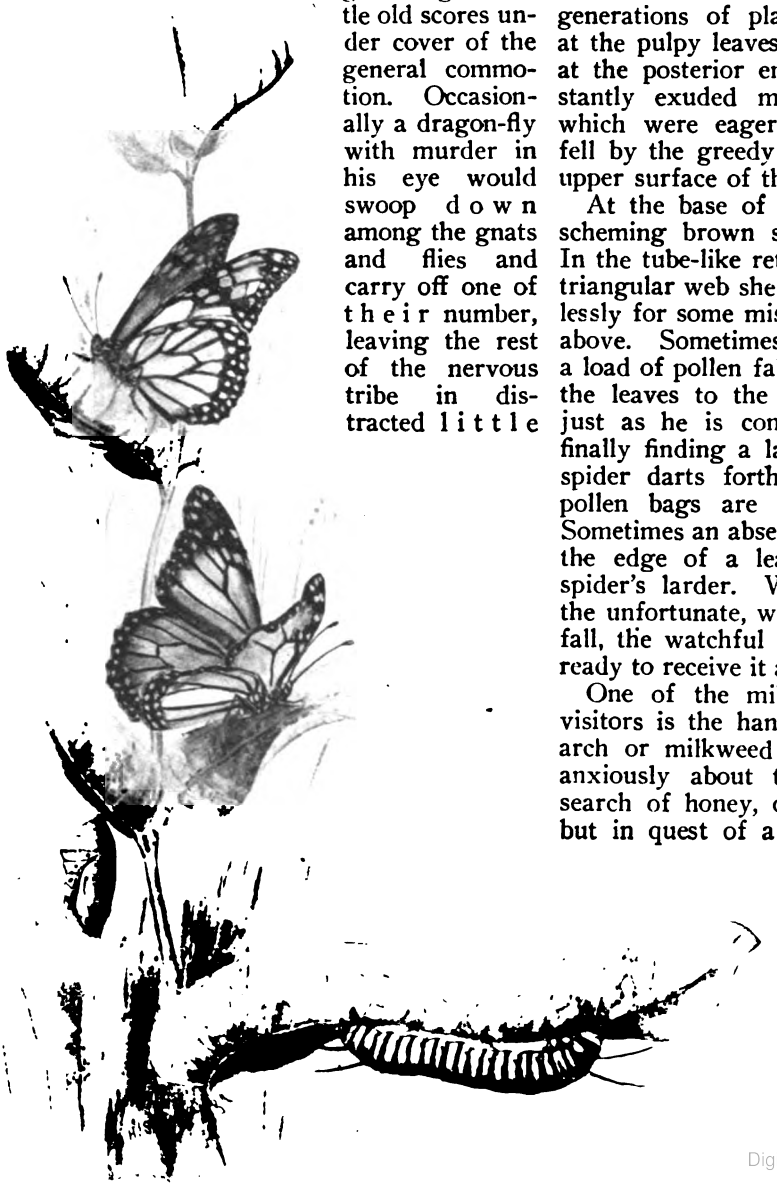
have learned that all of the visitors do not come to the milkweed patch in search of honey—some come in search of the honey-gatherers, and some find attractions there that have nothing to do directly with the milkweed stalk itself.

In the "hangout" in my alley I have counted as many as forty different kinds of insect visitors. There were gnats and flies of various hues; there were honey-bees and "bumble-bees;" and there were quarrelsome wasps, ill-tempered hornets and yellow-jackets who seemed to join the cosmopolitan gathering to settle old scores under cover of the general commotion. Occasionally a dragon-fly with murder in his eye would swoop down among the gnats and flies and carry off one of their number, leaving the rest of the nervous tribe in distracted little groups to talk over the disaster. Sometimes a big clumsy grasshopper would disturb a score of honey-sippers by landing "kerflop" on the surface of a leaf.



There were numerous ant visitors, too, —big ants and little ants, black ants and red ants. These, I often noticed, never ascended the stalk, but confined their entire attention to the upper surfaces of the big green leaves. They walked about with such an air of satisfaction that one day I investigated, and found that they, too, were enjoying sweets, but of a different manufacture. On the under surface of the leaves above them were several generations of plant lice, sucking away at the pulpy leaves. From the tiny tubes at the posterior end of their bodies constantly exuded minute drops of honey which were eagerly surrounded as they fell by the greedy throng of ants on the upper surface of the leaf below.

At the base of the milkweed stalk the scheming brown spider spreads her net. In the tube-like retreat at the apex of the triangular web she hides and watches tirelessly for some mishap in the busy throng above. Sometimes a bee with too heavy a load of pollen falls down, down through the leaves to the "catch-all" below, and just as he is congratulating himself on finally finding a landing place the brown spider darts forth and the bee and his pollen bags are never heard of more. Sometimes an absent-minded ant walks off the edge of a leaf and replenishes the spider's larder. Whatever the nature of the unfortunate, whatever the cause of his fall, the watchful brown spider is always ready to receive it and make her diagnosis.

One of the milkweed's most faithful visitors is the handsome red-brown monarch or milkweed butterfly. She hovers anxiously about the "hangout," not in search of honey, or of honey-filled prey, but in quest of a good place to lay her eggs. After careful examination and much deliberation, she chooses the soft under side of the leaf—just as her ancestors have always done with the same careful examination and deliberation. By and by there comes

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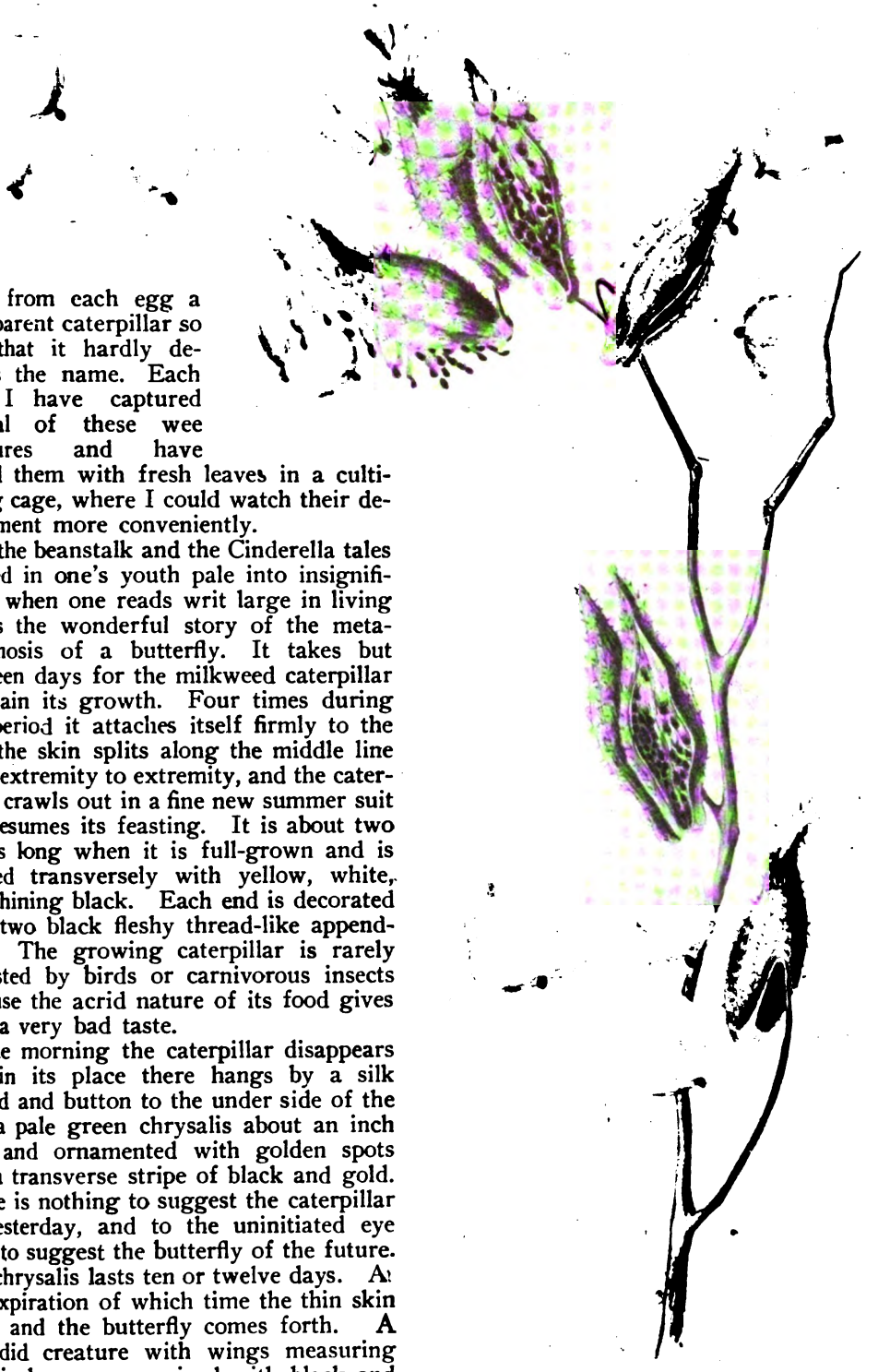

forth from each egg a transparent caterpillar so tiny that it hardly deserves the name. Each July I have captured several of these wee creatures and have placed them with fresh leaves in a cultivating cage, where I could watch their development more conveniently.

All the beanstalk and the Cinderella tales learned in one's youth pale into insignificance when one reads writ large in living letters the wonderful story of the metamorphosis of a butterfly. It takes but fourteen days for the milkweed caterpillar to attain its growth. Four times during this period it attaches itself firmly to the leaf, the skin splits along the middle line from extremity to extremity, and the caterpillar crawls out in a fine new summer suit and resumes its feasting. It is about two inches long when it is full-grown and is banded transversely with yellow, white, and shining black. Each end is decorated with two black fleshy thread-like appendages. The growing caterpillar is rarely molested by birds or carnivorous insects because the acrid nature of its food gives to it a very bad taste.

One morning the caterpillar disappears and in its place there hangs by a silk thread and button to the under side of the leaf a pale green chrysalis about an inch long and ornamented with golden spots and a transverse stripe of black and gold. There is nothing to suggest the caterpillar of yesterday, and to the uninitiated eye little to suggest the butterfly of the future. The chrysalis lasts ten or twelve days. At the expiration of which time the thin skin splits and the butterfly comes forth. A splendid creature with wings measuring four inches across, veined with black and surrounded by a black border spotted with white! A tiny egg, a crawling caterpiller, a pulpy leaf for food, a motionless chrysalis, and then a superb creature with fluttering wings!

"Can such things be

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And overcome us like a summer cloud
Without our special wonder?"

Several broods of the milkweed butterfly are produced annually, and in the Eastern States in autumn they often appear in great swarms. Two years ago in September they took the heart of New York City by storm. They filled the air of Wall Street, they descended on the trees and lawns of Central Park, they covered the walls and roofs of the high buildings and entered the office windows, they alighted on the streets and sidewalks, they rested on the railings of street cars, and covered the passing wagons and their cargoes.

On the New Jersey coast in October, when the foliage has already fallen, the trees are sometimes so completely covered with clinging masses of these butterflies as to present the appearance of trees in full leaf.

By and by, when the autumn chill has frightened away the bees and the butterflies (if in the meantime it has escaped the vigilance committee and the small boy who gathers the milky juice for "chewin' gum") the milkweed "hangout" will have assumed a new beauty. In place of the July pompons there will be clusters of dusty boat-shaped pods full to the brim of brown seeds packed as neatly as fish scales. When the ripened pods crack open the plumed seeds will pop out like the ills from Pandora's box; and if they are not captured by some æsthetic young damsel for sachet bags, they will sail away in the autumn winds. Some will fall "upon a rock," and some "among thorns," but some of the multitude will fall "on good ground, spring up, and bear fruit an hundredfold." Another year, perhaps (owing to the vicissitudes of plant life, or the idiosyncrasy of the commissioner) I may not have this interesting assemblage at my back door. However that may be, I am the richer for my two years' acquaintance with this humblest of wayfarers; for,

"To win the secret of a weed's plain heart
Reveals some clew to spiritual things."

MINISTRY in Germany is likely to suffer from a scarcity of recruits to its ranks, for the present ratio of theological students to all others in the universities is lower than it has been for seventy years. In 1830 the total was 4,767, which steadily decreased to 1,614 in 1850, owing to the emancipation of the teaching profession from theology in 1831 and the growth of liberal theology about 1848. By 1866 the total had recovered to 2,550; but thereafter declined again until the absolute minimum was reached in 1876 with 1,503 theological students for all Germany. Then came a sudden increase in 1880, owing to a conjunction of favorable conditions. The government granted the pastors an increase of salary, a reaction against materialism and social-democracy set in, and positive views on religion increased. This brought up the total to 4,793 in 1888; but the general tendency to decrease soon reasserted itself, so that by 1893 there were 3,562 and at present there are only 2,149 theological students in the "land of thinkers and authors," being about half of the number in 1830. Still more striking than this absolute decrease is that relative to the whole body of students, which of course has steadily increased during the nineteenth century. Thus, in 1830, theological students constituted 30 per cent. of the whole student body, in 1885 they were 16.4 per cent., in 1899 only 7.2 per cent., and are now a mere 5.9 per cent. In modern Germany the thinking classes are largely estranged from the church, concentration of the people in cities renders fewer pastors needful, while marked industrial and commercial expansion has opened new, interesting, and remunerative careers to ambitious youth. Since there is no immediate prospect of change in any of these conditions, it is likely that the general tendency of the last 70 years to decrease will not be reversed, although it may now have reached its limit. No one acquainted with the history of culture in the past will suppose that the human need for religion, and consequently for professional teachers of it, will pass away in Germany or anywhere else under advancing culture. Church will no more disappear than will State, though each must constantly respond to new conditions of man in his totality and of his ever widening and deepening environment. One new condition for religion is the increased rivalry for man's attention, not only from the industrial and commercial spheres above mentioned, but from the worthier activities of science both pure and applied, art, music, literature, and social ethics, all which are developing or diffusing at an unprecedented rate.

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The Largest Mint Farm in the World.

BY

WALTER E. ANDREWS.

FROM hoe to scepter, from farmer boy to "Peppermint King," from humbleness to power—such is the history of one of America's most remarkable men. And with that history is entwined the progress of the peppermint industry of the world, and the founding and building-up of the largest and most systematically conducted mint farm in existence. There are some men who grow mint on a more or less small scale. There are a few men who distill the oil. There are occasional chemists who endeavor to refine it. But there is, I believe, but one man in the world who has made a successful, united, systematic business of every process connected with the production of oil of peppermint—from plant to still, from still to refinery. That man is Hon. Albert M. Todd, of Michigan. To-day Mr. Todd is the largest producer of peppermint oil in the world. He owns and operates 10,640 acres devoted to the production and utilization of peppermint and its by-product; he possesses the most complete essential-oil refinery in existence; and he enjoys the distinction of being the highest authority on a little-known but important industry.

When nineteen years of age Mr. Todd rented five acres of land from his father, a farmer living near Nottawa, St. Joseph county, Michigan. He had a fair education, and had acquired an idea that mint-growing was a business with a future—a future in which he desired to take a hand. The rented land, planted to mint, proved to be a successful venture. Encouraged, Mr. Todd concluded to try the same thing on a large scale. First, however, he went to England and investigated the peppermint industry in the land of its birth. Impressed by the crudeness of English and American peppermint methods, Mr. Todd resolved, upon his return to America, to place the business on a more systematic, up-to-date footing. As a first step he purchased 1,400 acres of black, swampy land in Allegan county, Michigan—land which, apparently, was worthless for agricultural purposes. People laughed at the man who was "foolish" enough to pay $25,000 (about $18 an acre) for a green-scum bog covered with a stubby, tangled wood-growth. Drainage ditches had to be dug, fourteen miles of expensive deep cuts; the land had to be cleared, stumps destroyed, and roots grubbed out. In the first plowing the ground was so spongy that horses sank deeply at every step and had to be equipped with a sort of snow-shoe. Those "bog-shoes" were rounded, broad, wooden affairs about a foot in diameter, with straps to hold them in place. The soil is still loose and "shaky," particularly in the Spring, and the bog-shoes are still needed on Campania Farm. The frogs that once seemed to croak: *"I-mint-debt, I-mint-debt,"* now cheerfully sing: *"I'm-in-mint, I'm-in-mint, I'm-in-mint!"*

By degrees, a little colony of buildings came into being in the center of the farm: a mammoth barn, a boarding-house for the employees, ice-houses, warehouses, mint distilleries, a summer-cottage for the owner and his family, a club-house and a bath-house for the use of employees, storage-houses for tools and implements, and farm-houses for superintendents. A windmill supplies water for the farm, and a good library supplies information and recreation for the men. No intoxicating liquors are permitted on the farm, but the men are furnished with every facility for wholesome enjoyment. There are no fences on this farm. The ditches and roadways are the only boundaries. It is a vast, green sea of undulating peppermint, laid off in long straight waves that stretch as far as the eye can see. At night a chill, pungent mist of vapor hangs over this verdant sea —a vapor that creeps into the eyes and

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CLEARING THE LAND FOR MINT CULTIVATION.

nostrils with a peculiar sharpness. Recently, 2,000 acres of similar land has been added to (although it does not join) Campania Farm. Mentha Farm, like Campania, has its collection of buildings, its miles of ditches, and its stills. The two farms are separate, yet united under one systematic management—a total of 3,640 acres devoted to the growth of peppermint.

Recently, also, 7,000 acres of wild, stump land was purchased at a point some distance north of the main farms. On this vast tract is kept a herd of 500 shorthorn cattle. Their connection with mint is thus explained by Mr. Todd: "One of our problems has been how best to utilize the by-product of peppermint growth, mint hay. That problem is now solved by feeding it to the cattle. Another problem has been how to find employment during the winter months for our small army of employees. We prefer to keep good men all through the year. It is better for the men and better for us. This second problem is now also solved; the men feed mint hay to the cattle in our big Campania barn during the winter season, and, when spring comes, the cattle are driven north to the range, where they can feed themselves while the men are busy attending to the mint crop."

Mr. Todd further says of mint cultivation, harvesting, and distilling: "In early spring the ground, having been plowed, is marked off into furrows two and one-half feet apart. In these furrows are placed the roots and runners which have multiplied from the setting of the preceding year. One acre of good roots furnishes sufficient 'sets' to plant from five to ten acres of new ground. These roots and runners are from one to three feet in length. In setting, they are carried in large sacks strung over the shoulders of the workmen, who place them in the furrows in a straight row so that there shall be one or two living 'sets' at every point in the row. While placing the 'sets' with their hands, the workmen at the same time cover them with their feet. It is an interesting sight, owing to the queer motions of the workmen's hands and feet. An experienced workman can set about

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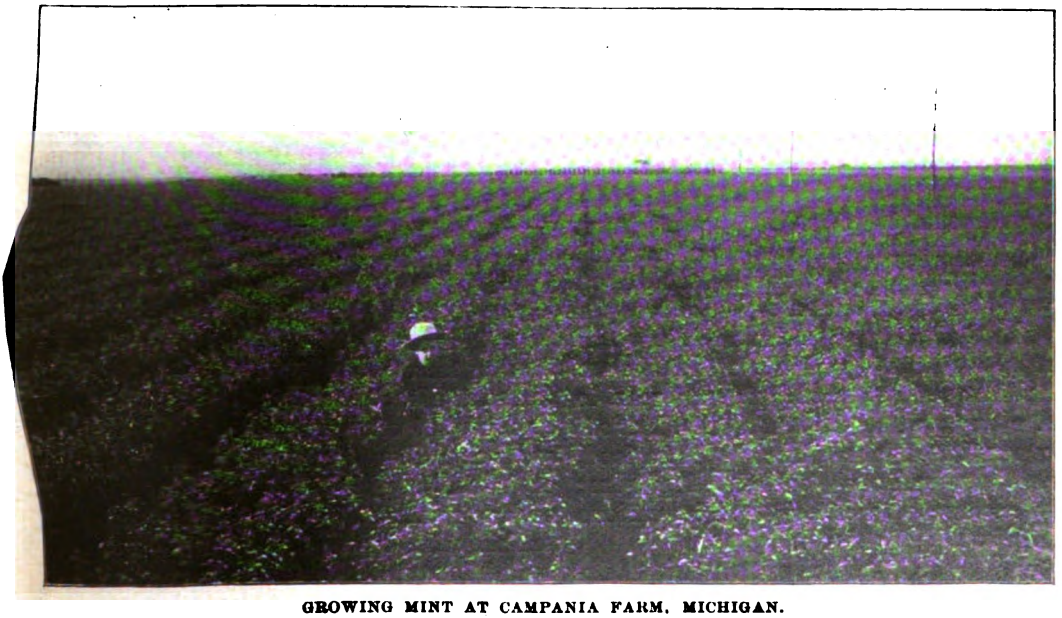
one acre per day. New plants appear above the ground about two weeks after setting, and are carefully hoed and cultivated until July or August, when, if the season is fair, the plants have thrown out such a quantity of shoots and runners as to render further cultivation difficult and unnecessary.

"Distillation of oil of peppermint was first accomplished in America in Wayne county, New York State, in 1816. In the year 1835 the industry was established in St. Joseph county, Mich., and a distillery was erected the following year. In 1846 was also effected there a revolution in the method of distillation and the apparatus therefor, viz., that of distillation by the diffusion of steam through the plants, which were now for the first time placed in large, wooden vats to which steam was conveyed by a long pipe entering at the bottom. The primitive still had a capacity of about fifteen pounds of essential oil in the twenty-four hours, whereas the new form had a capacity of from seventy-five to one hundred pounds. This system of steam distillation originated in St. Joseph county, Michigan. As the steam enters the bottom of the vat it is diffused evenly and forced upward through the plants. The heat of the steam expands the globules of oil, causing them to burst, and the oil being thus freed is carried off in the current of steam to a condenser over which cold water constantly flows. The condensed oil and water flow into a receiver, where the oil rises to the top and is drawn off. The three stills at Campania have each a capacity of about 1,000 pounds of oil per day. The vats each contain, at a charge, from 2,000 to 3,000 pounds of dried plants. The mint hay, after the distillation, comes from the vats in the form of large cylindrical cakes, which, when dried, is much relished by horses and cattle.

"The proper time for distillation is when the plants are in full bloom. In the case of the 'new crop' (that is, the crop which has been set the preceding spring) this usually occurs in September. What is known as the 'old' or 'second' crop (which, after being plowed down, springs up spontaneously from the preceding year's growth), matures usually in August. We ordinarily grow three crops from the same land before replanting. The first crop produces most, but the subsequent crops, owing to the saving on planting and cultivating expenses, are generally the most profitable to the grower. For distillation the plants are cut with mowing machines, raked with horse-rakes, and allowed to dry in the sun before being drawn to the stills.

"The average yield of essential oil varies greatly according to the quality of the



GROWING MINT AT CAMPANIA FARM, MICHIGAN.

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plants, depending mostly on whether they are well covered with leaves and blossoms, in which the essential oil is entirely contained. From 2,000 pounds of well-leaved plants I have distilled eighteen pounds of essential oil, whereas from a like quantity of coarse plants, largely devoid of leaves, but one and one-half pounds has been obtained. The average yield, however, is about one-third of one per cent."

Mr. Todd has recently introduced a co-operative profit-sharing idea among his two or three hundred employees. All employees who remain long enough to earn not less than fifty dollars in a season, and who are faithful in performing their duties, are now paid a yearly dividend on their earnings. For instance: If the Todd Company declares a dividend of ten per cent. to its stockholders, an employee who annually earns $800 receives a dividend of $80, exactly as if he held stock to the amount of his earnings.

The Todd essential-oil refinery and office is located at Kalamazoo, Mich. In this building the crude oil of peppermint is refined and stored. The refining processes are secret ones, mostly the invention of Mr. Todd. He it was who discovered a method of making menthol crystals from peppermint oil.

According to a recent United States Government report, the largest yearly production of peppermint oil in the United States was in 1897, distributed as follows: Michigan, 172,000 lbs.; New York, 37,000 lbs.; Indiana, 32,000 lbs.; and other States, 10,000 lbs.; total crop, 251,000 lbs. "Owing to that enormous crop," says the report, "there followed an unexpected drop in prices, which has since greatly restricted production."

On account of an unusually wet season, the crop of 1902 was less than normal, which accounts for the high price attained at one time in the season of five dollars per pound. Ordinarily, crude mint-oil is worth but two dollars a pound, or thereabouts. The European mint crop, in any year, is but a tiny part of the world's production. Peppermint oil is used as a flavor in food, drink, confectionery, and chewing gum; as a source of menthol; and in various medicinal preparations.

There is a steadily increasing demand.

MOST REVEREND HENRY MOELLER, D. D.
Archbishop of Areopolis and Coadjutor to Archbishop Elder of Cincinnati.

MOELLER, Most Reverend Henry. —Cincinnati is the only city in this country distinguished for having two archbishops to administer duties in their see, and is particularly proud of the archbishop of Areopolis, Most Rev. Henry Moeller, who was born there in 1849 and secured his early education at St. Xavier's College —an institution dear to the local people and ranking high among schools of learning. After graduating with high honors in his native city, the young man studied theology and philosophy in Rome and was ordained in the city on the Tiber in St. John's Lateran on June 10, 1876, by Monsignor Lenti. He was called home in September of that year by the late Archbishop Purcell and given a church at Bellefontaine, Ohio. Leaving there after two years' devoted service to his flock, and bearing their good wishes, he became professor at Mt. St. Mary's Seminary, where he remained one year. At the urgent request of Bishop Chatard and with consent of Archbishop Purcell, he accepted the post of secretary to the former prelate at Indianapolis. In July of the following year he returned to Cincinnati to act as secretary and afterward rose to be Chan-

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cellor to Archbishop Elder, a position which he admirably filled, until reluctantly relinquished to become Bishop of Columbus, Ohio.

It was hard to sever the close relations between Dr. Moeller and the Archbishop, as nearly twenty years' association had cemented a friendship which now finds expression in the delight of the latter over the new honors conferred on his appointed successor. But the last three years spent in Columbus has served to increase the number of his friends and broaden his field of duty.

Bishop Moeller received the Papal bulls May 22 appointing him titular Archbishop of Areopolis and coadjutor to Archbishop Elder of Cincinnati, whose assistant and eventual successor (Deo Volente) he is to be. Areopolis, Archbishop Moeller's titular see, was the seat of a Bishop in ancient Greece and the scene of great achievements in early Christian history. It was in this diocese on the Areopagus that St. Paul preached to the Athenians. The news of Dr. Moeller's new honors pleases his friends greatly and gives proof of the high regard in which he is held in Rome. There is but one other similarly honored in this country—Mgr. Falconio, the apostolic delegate at Washington, who is titular Archbishop of Larissa.

The Handicap of Older Men.

BY

SAM. M. CUMMINGS.

THERE have been a number of articles written on this subject, mostly by proprietors or paid writers; but from an employee's standpoint I think I can show where these learned men fall far short of covering actual facts. One of our recent writers on this subject says: "Young people are more agreeable to an employer; there is a contagion in their youthful enthusiasm that goes through the establishment." This looks very well in print, but if one of these proprietors would take a stroll into the washroom of any of the large department stores of to-day and notice a dozen of these youthful enthusiasts smoking cigarettes and counting out a few nickels to one of the porters to play a few numbers on Dead Man's Row or the rat row at the policy shop, they would change their opinions. Youth is all right no doubt, and we want to give the boys a show; but when the professors tell us that a youth of twenty of the present day gives as good service to a firm as one of more mature age they are far from the truth. There is no doubt that this is a century of progress. It was only a few years ago when we rode on horse cars in Chicago, and to-day, with all the electric, cable, and elevated roads we are still looking for more facilities. We are now building an underground system to do away with the congestion of the streets. Streets that only a short time ago were sufficient to accommodate traffic have now become too congested to meet the people's needs. To be efficient to-day one has to be quick in both thought and action, and I believe that a man of thirty-five or forty is more capable of using sound judgment than most of these smart boys are. The men of success in business life to-day must keep on learning, watching what is going on around them, studying and thinking all the time, studying human nature, a knowledge of which is indispensable. There is no set rule as to how to make a study of that ever-varying mystery—human nature. You cannot learn this out of books or from your grandmother. You just have to study the ways of men and form your own ideas. All this cannot be done in a little while; it takes years. In an article by Henry George, Jr., in a recent issue of the Chicago *Record-Herald*, he tells of meeting one Mr. F. Sidney Walker of England. He says Mr. Walker is a keen, alert Englishman in the early

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thirties, well educated, and much traveled, who, in a director's capacity, is connected with several large manufacturing and banking institutions in England. But it must be remembered that Mr. Walker's father and grandfather before him were millionaires, and it was money that put him in these large institutions instead of his brilliant youth.

While down East a year ago I noticed, as did many others, that young men are holding some responsible positions. Being interested I made an effort to get at the real cause of such a state of things. In one instance I found out that one of the best-known shoe manufacturers in the United States was getting tired of work and had turned his business over to his

SAM. M. CUMMINGS.

two boys. Another case was that of one of the best-known jobbing houses in New York. The manager was a bright young fellow, but his uncle was the proprietor. I found a number of other cases of the same nature. To-day in Chicago, if you will make an investigation in any of these large department stores, you will find that the young men that are in charge of departments are relatives of the firm members, and are put there more on that account than for the ability they possess.

I know a young physician in Chicago who has two offices. He got through college about three years ago. His "pa and ma" are wealthy, his father being a well-known physician; and the boy gets whatever money he wants for office rent or expenses of any kind. Now, in the course of four or five years, when this boy is about thirty and his father leaves him a fortune, people will say there is a brilliant young man. But suppose this same boy had been born on Goose Island, of poor but honest parents, see how much longer it would take him to own a stone-front mansion!

There are lots of things that turn up in business that only long experience can teach. There are many little things I could mention, but I will just cite one that I noticed a few days ago in a large shoe store. A man and his wife were in the men's department looking for a pair of shoes with elastic sides and imitation lace; such as were worn years ago. The reason the man wanted this style was that he liked the appearance of the lacing, but was too stout to bend down to lace shoes. The young clerk that was serving him said they had nothing like that any more, and the customer started out; but one of the older clerks, who had heard what he asked for, explained to him that he would fit him in a lace shoe and have the elastic inserted inside of two hours. This was satisfactory and the older clerk made the sale. The difference was that the inexperienced young fellow did not think of the suggestion and the older one did.

"O'RELL, MAX."—It is the consensus of press opinion that the mission of "Max O'Rell" (Paul Blouet), who died in Paris, May 24, 1903, has been to create, by his wit, gaiety, and clear outlook, a better understanding and more friendly feeling among the peoples of Europe. Cherishing Victor Hugo's impossible ideal of a United States of Europe, he left his mission unfinished. Nevertheless, his books, light in quality as they are, have made at least three nations more tolerant of one another's peculiarities. He was the product of such modern conditions as make it possible for a man to have more countries than one. With a rare instinct for amusing contrasts, and a wit without venom, he created a method of racial and social satire by which he kept three nations smiling for thirty years.

Paul Blouet was born in Brittany, March 2, 1848, of French parents. He was educated in Paris, where he took the degree of B. A. in 1865, and began to write. In

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MAX O'RELL.

1869 he obtained a commission in the French army. He fought in the Franco-Prussian War, and was taken prisoner at Sedan in 1870. Later he participated in the war of the Commune, during which he received wounds which compelled him to leave the army. In 1873, he went to England and began the journalistic career that he followed the rest of his life. He taught French in St. Paul's School, London, where he resided for many years, and lectured and wrote for the Paris newspapers. He became famous on the publication of his book, "John Bull and His Island." In 1887 he visited the United States and is well known in this country as a lecturer and journalist. Other books by him are "John Bull's Womankind," "John Bull and Company," "Jonathan and His Continent," "A Frenchman in America," "Jacques Bonhomme," "Her Royal Highness, Woman," and "Drat the Boys." He wrote also an unsuccessful play, "The Price of Wealth," which was produced for one night in Detroit by Olga Nethersole and her brother Louis.

PARTHENOGENESIS, ARTIFICIAL.—The observations and experiments of Professor Jacques Loeb and other physiologists, while not solving the problem of life, have brought to light some strange facts relating to the artificial production and preservation of life in the lower forms of marine animals. When conditions are favorable, new individuals can be brought into being without the aid of the male element. Briefly stated, artificial parthenogenesis has been caused by concentrated sea-water, by lowering the temperature of sea-water, and by mechanical agitation of eggs.

Further researches have been made by Dr. Martin H. Fischer, of the University of California, in artificial parthenogenesis, and the results of some of his experiments with the eggs of the nereis, a small sea worm, appear in the *American Journal of Physiology,* April 1, 1903. Various questions remain to be studied, but enough has been learned to show that parthenogenesis can be brought about with a sugar solution as with salt or potassium chloride. "It does not matter," says Dr. Fischer, "whether electrolytes or non-electrolytes are used for this purpose, sodium chloride, potassium chloride, cane-sugar may be used, though sodium chloride usually yields the largest number of swimming larvæ, while sugar yields the least." He holds that "the essential factor in bringing about artificial parthenogenesis in nereis is an abstraction of water from the egg."

Loeb and Fischer had previously expressed the opinion that the change noted was due to osmotic effects, and not to the specific effects of K-ions. Scientists will await with interest the results of Dr. Fischer's experiments the coming summer.

PHILIPPINES, EDUCATION IN.—The recently published report of Fred W. Atkinson, general superintendent of public instruction in the Philippines, is of more than ordinary interest to Americans, in that it gives not only a historical sketch of the educational movement in the Philippine Islands, but throws light on the general situation in our new possessions.

Before the American occupation of the Philippine Islands something had been done by the Spaniards in educating the Filipinos. However, inadequate provisions were made for teachers; and for schoolhouses, dwellings and other buildings were rented. As for equipment and textbooks, the schools were very bad off. Some schools had no seats for pupils. There

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was a woful lack of system and completeness. It is said that in 1897 there were 2,167 public schools in the islands, and these were sectarian ungraded schools with but one teacher for each 4,179 inhabitants.

Under the military government efforts were made by General Otis and other army officers to establish schools in Manila and elsewhere. Soldiers and chaplains were detailed to act as teachers. Spanish methods were continued, each school having one teacher in English. During the year ending June 30, 1900, the schools of Manila had an average daily attendance of 4,500, with 149 teachers (of whom 86 were Filipinos, 28 Jesuit professors, 11 Dominican sisters, and 24 English instructors). Schools established in the island of Panay had a good attendance, yet less than half of the children of school age were in them. Until the coming of Supt. Atkinson education throughout the archipelago was in a chaotic condition.

On September 1, 1900, Dr. Atkinson assumed charge and spent some time studying the educational situation. On November 1, 1900, he recommended a modified American public school system. He believed it advisable to have the English language taught side by side with native languages. He favored compulsory education for children between 6 and 12. He held that schools supported on public funds should be unsectarian. Later a bill was drafted, appropriating $1,560,000 (U. S. money) to maintain the schools in 1901. The bill became a law January 21, 1901.

Supt. Atkinson, aided by an advisory board of four educated Filipinos, organized the present educational organization in the Philippines. The corps comprises 18 division superintendents, 45 deputy division superintendents, 1,000 primary and 200 higher teachers of English, and about 3,400 native teachers, besides school officials. The total number of American teachers was reported by Supt. Atkinson to be 1,221; and the total teaching force, 4,640. The number of children enrolled in day schools was over 200,000, and in the night schools the enrollment was 25,000. An enormous quantity of school supplies was purchased, besides 750,000 or more copies of American schoolbooks.

"With a few exceptions," says Dr. Atkinson, "the teachers are now satisfied, intensely interested, and enthusiastic in their work. They have come from one of the most civilized countries, where every common luxury is known, to one of the less civilized ones, where much of what we at home no longer consider as luxuries, but rather necessities, is unknown; hence inconveniences and at times real difficulties were inevitable. That the teachers bore these with such little complaint was strong proof of their determination to overcome the ordinary discomforts, often severe, which are attendant upon a life in a country such as this. A strong proof of their satisfaction with conditions in many cases is the fact that they are sending for fathers, mothers, brothers, sisters, and betrothed ones.

"The matter of personal safety has almost ceased to be a question, for the teachers are not allowed to remain in towns which are considered dangerous; and, in fact, their work is a guaranty of protection, so highly do the people, friendly or hostile to American occupation, appreciate this work of education."

Industrial education is the great want among the Filipinos, who need trade schools and agricultural schools. The superintendent believes it is desirable to send Filipinos to the United States to study two years and learn our methods.

As to the capacity and characteristics of Filipino children some interesting conclusions are given, based on the observations of their American teachers.

"The Filipino child falls short of the American child in general intelligence, in concentration, in reasoning, in activity, in morality, and in ambition."

The boys showed the greatest interest in arithmetic, next preferring English, drawing, writing, and reading. English was the favorite study with the girls.

Many teachers oppose mixed schools. The girls are said to be inferior intellectually to the boys and would keenly feel a failure in recitation before the boys. A considerable number of teachers, however, strongly argue in support of mixed schools.

POWDER BLAST, THE GREATEST.—Not long ago occurred what was perhaps the greatest single blast with an artificial explosive that has ever been known in the world. The immense blast was set off by the North Poudre Valley Ditch Company, under a hill of solid granite, 85 feet high

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and 316 feet in diameter, which stood at the entrance of the Poudre Valley Canon, three miles northwest of La Porte, Colorado. The Poudre Valley Ditch Company found it necessary to remove the hill in order to carry on the work of constructing a mammoth canal. Therefore, tunnels thirty feet long were first blasted into the hill at various points, and into these tunnels were inserted 1,640 kegs of giant powder. Giant powder was preferred to dynamite because it does not dig down. When all was in readiness, with copper wires running from giant caps under the powder to an electric battery at a safe distance from the hill, a signal was given, the current was turned on, and in an instant the hill disappeared. Pieces of rock as large as three-story buildings were hurled high into the air and caused the earth to tremble a mile away when they fell to the ground. For fifteen seconds small bits of rock came down from above.

Marvel at what this blast accomplished. It made possible the only method of completing a ditch which will be worth one billion of dollars to farmers whose lands it will water. It will carry a flow of one thousand irrigating feet of water an hour.

PRIZES ABOLISHED IN CHICAGO SCHOOLS.—From time immemorial, the practice has been in vogue of giving prizes to bright pupils for high standing or for excellence in contests, literary and oratorical. Prize essays and honors of one sort or another still figure in the life of students in colleges and universities, and perhaps there is something to be said in their favor. But in the public schools it is different.

In Chicago the verdict of teachers and principals is that awards to pupils do more harm than good; they are the cause of "heartaches, envies, and scandals." By the vote of the school management committee, on the recommendation of the Principals' Association, graduation-day awards have been abolished. Henceforth there will be no distinction between pupils on graduation day. The committee hopes that its action will influence other school boards to end the custom of awarding prizes for high standing in scholarship. Intellectual culture is too valued for its own sake, not because it brings honors or prizes.

Four reasons were assigned by the Chicago principals for opposing prizes, as follows:

While the prospect of a prize has no effect on the class as a whole, it acts as a spur to the few who need rather a curb.

No one is wise enough to know whether in the award exact justice has been done. Has every slip and blunder been recorded? Has every delinquency in conduct been noted?

The prospects of a prize at the end of the year make necessary the keeping of minute records, which task takes the time and strength from the work the teacher is engaged to do—namely: teaching.

It tends to awaken the spirit of envy and jealousy among those at the head of the class, making what should be the happiest days full of bitterness and spite.

RUBBER CULTURE.—For more than half a century India rubber has been an important article of commerce. Among bark products Caoutchouc, or Gum Elastic, is one of the most valuable. The output of 1902, roughly estimated, was 120,000,000 pounds, worth about $72,000,000 at 60 cents a pound. The largest quantity came from the Amazon district, with Africa next, the Congo country being especially rich in rubber. Mexico and Central America produced eight or ten million pounds. Still smaller quantities were obtained in the West Indies, the East Indies, Madagascar, India and Ceylon.

The gum from which rubber is made is called *hule* in Mexico, the ancient Aztec name, and *Caucho* (caoutchouc) in South America. There are in all more than sixty trees, shrubs, and vines that give the gum elastic of commerce. The "rubber belt," over which they are distributed, reaches around the world and extends from 25 degrees south to 20 degrees north latitude.

The milky juice of the bark of rubber trees contains from 32 to 44 per cent. of gum. The best rubber trees are the *Castilloa elastica,* of Mexico and other countries, and the *Hevea* of Brazil. Para rubber, from the valley of the upper Amazon, is the most famous in the world. Recently a vine has been discovered in Honduras that yields a gum said to be superior in quality to the Para rubber.

While there are no great forests existing solely of indigenous rubber trees, the largest standing body of rubber woods so-called is on the Rio Casiquiare River, which connects the Rio Orinoco and the Rio Negro. Here are millions of trees fifteen years old and over, now at their

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NINE-MONTHS-OLD RUBBER TREE NURSERY.
Chacamas Plantation, Department Palenque, State of Chiapas, Mexico.

richest bearing. Probably $40,000,000 worth or more of the crude product was shipped from the Amazon ports in 1902.

The city of Manaos, in the Amazon district, has 40,000 inhabitants, chiefly engaged in gathering rubber from the jungles and preparing it for the market. While some tracts of land have been exhausted, new areas of rubber lands have been discovered. The dependence of the future will be more and more upon the output of plantations. "The rubber product of the Amazon Valley is increasing with great rapidity," wrote a traveler thirty years ago. "That for 1870 was correctly estimated at 5,760 net tons, and once the lands of Bolivia are penetrated, this figure will be largely increased." The exports of 1902 were about 60,000,000 pounds. Rubber abounds also in the forests of Peru, Ecuador and Colombia, the annual yield of the countries outside of the Amazon district being more than 7,000,000 pounds.

The South American Indians are foolishly reckless in their methods of getting caucho.

"Destruction of rubber trees goes on with the utmost disregard for every interest involved. So far from attempting to save the trees, as a source of future revenue, the native rubber gatherer resents every attempt to preserve this source of riches, and destroys the trees which give him his living. He prefers seeking new hunting grounds rather than using a little

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care to save the trees he finds. The more prudent of them usually gashes one side only of a tree, then leaves it for a few months to in part recover. Then he again slashes it on the side opposite that where his first hackings were. This finishes that tree. The two series of cuts will completely girdle the trunk, in a dozen or less places, and of course kill it. In some countries, as Ecuador, the natives simply, and foolishly, cut down the rubber tree, and thus at once cut off all supplies from that source."

In Colombia there has been a gradual decrease of rubber production. The exports from 1871 to 1875, inclusive, amounted to 26,859,618 pounds, an average of 5,371,-923 pounds a year. From 1876 to 1900, the yield has averaged 1,728,000 pounds a year.

Similar conditions prevail in Assam, Madagascar, Acra, Lagos, Benguela, where the sole mode of obtaining rubber is by destroying the trees supplying the gum. In the Congo Free State, the destruction of rubber trees and vines is prohibited by law.

Rubber trees and vines flourish in Central America and in some parts of Mexico. The best known of the rubber-bearing trees is the hule or *Castilloa elastica.* It grows to a large size and seems to be better suited to the soil and altitude than the *Hevea braziliensis* or Para. "For wet lands Para is undoubtedly superior to *Castilloa,"* says E. L. Peritara in his able work on "Tropical America;" "therefore, it is thought that *Hevea* will thrive in the low lands of parts at least of Central America, and may perhaps give good results as far north as the region of Tehuantepec."

Of hule trees John Crawford of Nicaragua says in the U. S. Consular Reports: "Some trees two to three feet in diameter and thirty-five to fifty feet tall will give annually twenty to forty pounds of good rubber. In collecting rubber, if the trees have been properly matured, from eight to twelve pounds can be taken biennially; but after the tree is twelve years of age, a sufficient quantity of sap or emulsion could be annually extracted from each tree to yield from ten to fifteen pounds of good, elastic rubber."

The United States Consul in Costa Rica says: "The trees are easily planted, need no cultivation, and grow rapidly from the seed. Hitherto most people have been discouraged from planting rubber trees, owing principally to the length of time needed for the tree to become sufficiently large to produce a profitable yield of gum; but the few who have undertaken the investment can now look forward to a time not far distant when their few thousand rubber trees may bring them a fortune little dreamed of."

Senor Romero, lately ambassador from Mexico, in his very full and elaborate work, "Coffee and Rubber Culture in Mexico," says of the *Castilloa:* "The large profits

RUBBER TREE IN MEXICO.
It has a circumference of 26 inches at 2½ years of age.

of rubber culture are obvious. A tree will give, at the end of a few years, six pounds of sap a year for every tree; that sap would lose about one-half by evaporation. Then each tree would yield three pounds net of rubber, the minimum rate of production, which will increase every succeeding year to the extent of being three or four times greater than the first."

Of late years a number of rubber orchards have been planted in Central America and Mexico, for the supply of wild rubber will certainly fall short some day. In the United States the consumption of rubber goods is rapidly increasing, having doubled the last seventeen years.

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According to the *Mexican Herald*, the United States buys $25,000,000 worth of crude rubber every year, and Great Britain consumes about as much. While Europe is behind these two countries in its appreciation of rubber goods, the demand is steadily growing. The future of rubber-culture enterprises seems to be well assured, if properly managed.

"A third of the crude rubber," says Cyrus C. Adams in "Text-Book of Commercia Geography," p. 112, "is made into shoes and boots. The United States manufactures six times as many rubber shoes and boots as the whole of Europe, for the reason that everybody in this country wears 'rubbers,' while their use in Europe is confined to persons of means. Many other articles are made of rubber, as bicycle tires, belting, blankets, combs, and buttons. The manufacturers are mainly confined to Massachusetts, Rhode Island, and Connecticut. Nearly all the output is consumed at home, and manufactured imports are very small."

In the February issue of *The India Rubber World* is a summary of rubber planting and exploitation in Mexico. The returns supplied by twenty-six companies show that 5,443,105 rubber trees have been planted during the six years, 1897-1902. Prominent among the plantations are the Orizaba, the Chacamas, and La Zacualpa, in the State of Chiapas. The latter has now growing over 1,000,000 rubber trees, and its grove of 5,000 trees planted in 1889 produced an average of three pounds per tree in 1901, their twelfth year. One acre of the Oaxica plantation, in Buena Vista, yielded 88 pounds of rubber. In the Isthmus of Tehuantepec, in the heart of the Rubber Belt, is the fertile tract known as the "Santa Isabel," which is being developed by American capital. Of these enterprises and others the *India Rubber World* (January 1, 1903) says: "Such planting of rubber as has been done in Mexico has been done by foreigners, using their own capital, and while most of the trees planted to date are too young to yield rubber, such trees as have become productive seem to have given such satisfactory results as to encourage more extensive planting."

The editor of *The India Rubber World*, who is now visiting plantations on the Isthmus of Tehuantepec, writes that much depends upon the ground chosen for rubber culture. He says: "One result of my early observation, and one that grew with each day's experience, was the conviction that a knowledge of climate, rainfall, soils, drainage, etc., is an absolute necessity from the beginning in the selection of suitable sites for rubber plantations. In other words, the expert tropical agriculturist, well equipped with common sense, is most likely to be the one who starts right. For example, one plans to plant the *Castilloa*. It is a soft wood tree, a tree that from its physical formation is not built to stand high winds, that with its long taproot must have a deep, rich soil and well drained withal. It is a deciduous tree, which means that at a certain time each year it encourages the presence of the sun's rays on its trunk and limbs. The prospective planter should, therefore, pick out land that is covered with a growth of soft rather than hard wood trees, as the latter points to gravelly soil instead of clayey loam. It should be soil that will give the tree plenty of moisture during the dry season and yet that will not be soggy during the wet. In the clearing of the land, if there are not natural windbreaks, a certain amount of forest should be left standing to act as such."

In 1902 the imports of crude India rubber into the United States amounted to 50,413,481 pounds, valued at $24,899,230. From Brazil came 31,532,700 pounds; from Central America, Mexico, and the West Indies, 1,485,418 pounds. The New York prices of Para fine rubber ranged from 72 to 99 cents a pound in 1902.

The great rubber-producing countries of the Old World are in East and West Africa, their annual output being 50,000,000 pounds or more. Rubber is the most valuable article of commerce in the Congo Free State, the rubber exports amounting to about $10,000,000 a year. The gum is inferior to the Para.

Other African countries in the "rubber belt" are Sierra Leone, Gold Coast, Nigeria, French Congo, Angola, etc.

Small quantities of rubber are produced in Madagascar, Ceylon, Singapore, Penang, and the Dutch East Indies. Rubber-yielding trees grow in Assam but the supply of caoutchouc is so small that it cuts no figure in India's commerce.

EUGENE PARSONS.

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The Russian Jew in the Pale.

BY

LOUIS E. VAN NORMAN.

FROM the Baltic Sea southeast for a thousand miles to the Crimea, from the German border, five or six hundred miles eastward, over Poland, about half way to Moscow, a country about the size of France—this is the "Pale," that section of the Russian empire in which the Jew may live. Outside of this "pale," except in the rarest of cases, he must not go, under pain of exile and imprisonment.

But this is one vast ghetto. If its Hebrew population of between four and five millions (including Poland), that is, about one-half the entire Jewish race, were permitted to live even within these boundaries in any section, and were protected by law as are other citizens of the empire, there would be plenty of room for them all, and, it is but just to say, the whole region would be vastly more prosperous than it is. But the Jew may live in only a very small section of the pale. He is crowded into the cities until he is a despair to himself and a menace to others.

The "Pale of Jewish Settlement" comprises the ten provinces of ancient Poland, and the following fifteen "governments" of modern Russia: Vilna, Vitebsk, Grodno, Minsk, Podolia, Volhynia, Kiev, Korno, Moheliv, Poltava, Taurida, Kher-

MAP SHOWING THE LOCATION OF KISHINEV, BESSARABIA.
The shaded portion shows the section of Russia in which the Jews are confined.

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RUSSIAN PEASANT TYPES.

son, Tchernigov, Ekaterinoslav, and Bessarabia. Kishinev, the scene of the recent massacres, is in the last-named "government," about one hundred miles to the northwest of Odessa. In taking over these provinces, which were not originally Russian, from Poland, Turkey, and Rumania (the greater part of Bessarabia came from Rumania by the treaty of 1878), Russia was confronted with the problem of what to do with a large Jewish population which had dwelt on the land for centuries, but which the absorbing empire was not willing to naturalize.

The "reconcentrado" policy of crowding the Jews into the cities and larger towns of the Pale began with the notorious "May Laws" of May, 1882, elaborated by General Ignatieff, a violent anti-Semite. As a "temporary arrangement," till a complete "revision of all the laws concerning the Jews" could be made, these laws forbade the Jews to settle outside the towns and "townlets," except in the cases of those Jewish colonies already existing and whose inhabitants were agricultural. The laws also "suspended temporarily" the "completion of instruments of mortgage in the names of Jews and their registration as lessees of landed estates outside of towns and townlets," and, finally, forbade the Jews to keep open or carry on any business on Sundays and Christian holidays. These measures applied only to the Jews in the Pale, but a supplementary order compelled all Jews to return to this district. Encouraged by the clemency and even open permission of the Tzar Alexander II., they had spread out into many other sections of the empire, where, as "skilled artisans," they were prospering and contributing to the general welfare of the country. The law of 1882 compelled them to return to the Pale, and the terrible overcrowding began, the congestion which has made the problem of the Russian Jew so complex and spread the danger of disease and fanatical outrage all over the empire.

Like all poor, badly nourished, unhealthy classes, the Russian Jew is very prolific, and great misery does not prevent large families. His poverty and the general wretchedness of his life are almost beyond belief. The writer spent some time several years ago in Kamieniec, a town of Podolia, some seventy miles from Kishinev. Kamieniec is full of Jews, of the

PEASANT, GREAT RUSSIA.

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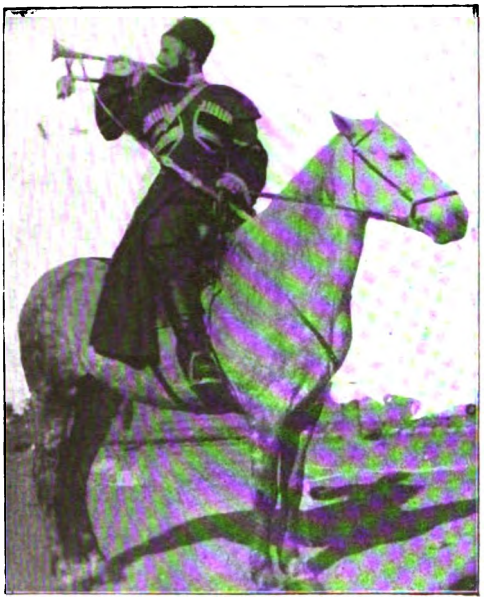
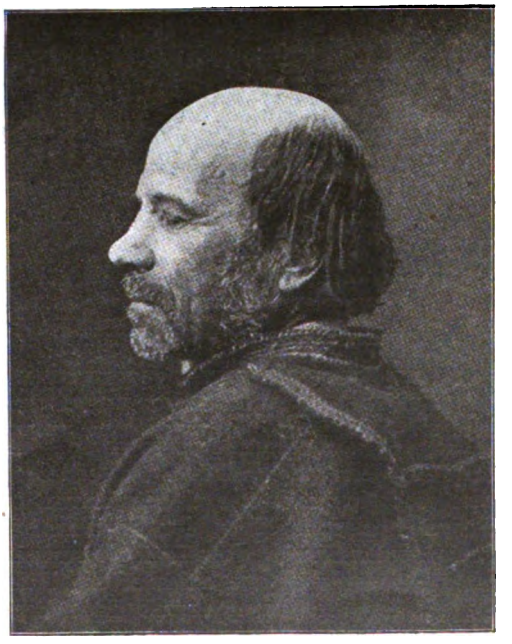


COSSACK OF THE URAL DISTRICT.

most abjectly poor class. Grinding, fearful, haunting poverty is the lot of this wretched being. He can be seen at almost any point on any street of the town, while his half-naked wife and children literally sprawl in the roadway, until some Cossack patrol comes along and terrifies them back into their warrens. The Jew merchant of Kamieniec sits before his little booth, selling his onions, stale eggs, potatoes, parsley, hard bread rolls, and other edibles. His countenance bears the stamp of listless despair. What is there to live for? Like the worldly Jew in Kingsley's "Hypatia," he has carefully weighed life in the balance of pro and con, and is facing the terrible conviction that it is not worth the living. Yet he dare not end it. Despite all his woes, he remains uncompromisingly orthodox. By imperial ukase, he is forbidden to wear the corkscrew side-curls that are the darling of his brother in the Kasimierz of Cracow. But he retains his long cloak and his long beard, and his children still learn to recite the prayers according to the ritual, rocking to and fro as they drone out the words with seemingly endless repetition.

It ought to be made very clear that the Russian peasant does not hate the Jew. He often receives and protects the victim of antisemitism. Indeed, during the recent Kishinev outrages, it has been reported on good authority that a number of the Jews were harbored and sheltered by peasants. These children of the soil and many thoughtful Russians of the upper classes also recognize the economic and commercial advantage of having a people with such natural financial aptitude as the Jews distributed throughout the country. Capital is made much "easier" and commerce facilitated.

The feeling against the Jew is based on religious, economic, and political grounds. At bottom it is no doubt because he is clannish and insists on retaining his religion, his racial traditions and his national dress. When he abjures these, even partly, he escapes the brunt of persecution. The various laws of exclusion do not prevent a certain number of influential and wealthy members of the race from attaining security of position and a certain degree of eminence. The Jew of the higher classes is in every way the equal of the best elements in Russian society. A proportion are permitted to enter the universities and to go into the various professions, particularly the law, in limited numbers. Perhaps 20,000 Jews in Russia possess certain means of existence. In most cases, however, by a variety of regulations and prejudices, the higher walks of life are closed to them. All the charges against



PEASANT OF THE ODESSA-KISHINEV REGION.

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the Russian Jew of dirt, ignorance, exclusiveness, and shrewdness in money dealing, are no doubt to a great extent true, but all can be traced, directly or indirectly, to the terrible overcrowding of them into the cities and the unjust deprivation of rights. As small tradesmen and facilitators of commerce they have been of undeniable benefit. They were expelled from Kishinev in 1845, but the people themselves demanded the repeal of the expulsion edict, which took place in 1858.

In the agricultural colonies of the Pale

M. DE PLEHWE, RUSSIAN MINISTER OF THE INTERIOR.

"Above all I was horrified at the real culprit, the government—with its foolish, fanatical priesthood, and its gang of robber officials."—*Tolstoi.*

the Jews have generally been orderly, industrious, and persevering. For two centuries most of them have been imprisoned in the ghettos of the cities, and in the cities they will probably stay as long as they are permitted. It is a law of progress that "never is the citizen known to return to peasant life." But it must not be forgotten that the Jew is not permitted to live even in all the cities of the Pale. Several of the larger towns have been withdrawn from the territory privileged to the Jew. Kiev is a holy city and Jews may not live there. The Crimea is now, for the most part, closed to the Hebrew. Yet, despite all the discriminations against him, in these very cities he sometimes rises to wealth and eminence. The writer met a rich Jew of Odessa who had served his time honorably in the army, had received a university education and amassed a considerable fortune in the grain trade. This man was a strong patriot, a loyal Russian, although he told of many persecutions of which he had been the victim. It is a remarkable illustration of the peaceable, home-loving, law-abiding character of the Jew that he would much prefer to remain at home in Russia and live out his poor, bare existence, if only permitted to do so in security of life and limb.

Along the border between Austria and Russia the Jew is very much in evidence, and really he is a very useful individual in these regions. He controls the means of local transportation, and, as he always knows several languages, he is much in demand as interpreter and guide. He carries merchandise and conducts travelers across the border and pilots them through the custom house, all the while the subject of the greatest contempt on the part of the Russian officials. He is accused of smuggling. But to one who has passed the customs examination going into Russia it is not very clear how the Jew can be successful in any great amount of such illicit traffic.

Dirt, poverty, and the physical and moral degradation of his life in the ghetto, have made the Russian Jew a pitiable object, considered from the standpoint of the physical man. He is generally listless in his movements, and stooped, sallow and thin. He clings to the time-honored gaberdine, the long black cloak reaching nearly to the ground. He also wears high top-boots carefully greased or blacked. Generally he wears a felt hat over a skull cap covering his shaved head. On certain days, of peculiar ritualistic significance, however, he wears a heavy fur cap even in the days of July. He always has a long beard and has a great fondness for carrying a small stick about with him. Many of the Russian Jewish women and girls are really beautiful.

One of the chief counts against the Jew in Russia is beyond a doubt his refusal to be proselytized. In the zeal of Panslavism

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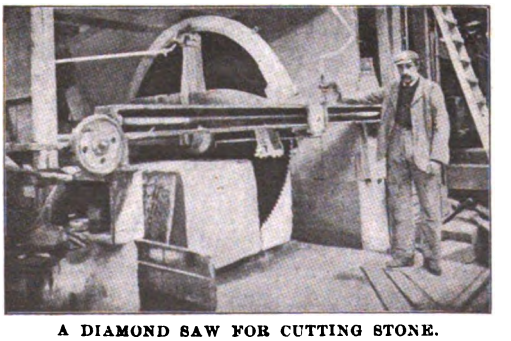
SUB-OFFICER OF THE RUSSIAN POLICE.

over "one king, one faith, and one law," all foreign communities are viewed with distrust and subjected to more or less persecution, although the laws of the empire are ostensibly very tolerant. Witness the Poles and the Finns. The Catholic Poles and the Protestant Finns, as well as the subjects of other non-Russian nationalities settled in the empire, have organized friends and powers in the rest of the world interested in them to a degree which Russia does not care to offend. But the Jew has no ambassador. So he is the universal scapegoat. His meekness and resignation under it all are certainly more Christlike than the ferocity and cruelty of some of his Christian overlords.

SAW WITH DIAMOND TEETH.—The demand of the age is for labor-saving devices, for inventions that will save time. This is as true in manufacturing as in business. Old machines are supplanted by new. The evolution of the saw is an illustration of progress. The old hand saw was useful in its day—it answered for a slow-going generation; then builders perceived the need of saving time, and the steam saw came into being. The steam saw effected a great saving of labor and time; it enabled a man to do in three hours what was formerly done in sixteen hours. Later came another pattern of the steam saw, an improvement on the old, working twice as fast; that is, sawing through a block of stone in three hours, which the old steam saw cut through in six hours. Thus was effected a saving of seven hours and a quarter, one man with the improved steam saw doing as much in forty-five minutes as the man with the hand saw did in eight hours.

A still further economy of time was required. It was effected by making a saw with diamond teeth. The diamond saw is driven by electricity, and it saws lengthways through a block of Portland stone in ten minutes. This is a saving of thirty-five minutes, for the steam saw (new pattern) required forty-five minutes for the work. In other words, the diamond does in one minute what the old steel saw run by hand did in forty-eight minutes.

This remarkable invention is installed in the Chelsea works of the British firm of builders, Foster & Dicksee, of Rugby, England. The saw is fitted with 170 small diamonds, which are set in steel wedges (while the steel is white hot) round the circumference of a circular disc. It easily goes through flints and other hard substances in the stone, and no further work on the face of the stone is needed, after the diamond saw has cut through the block. This results in another saving of time to the builder.



A DIAMOND SAW FOR CUTTING STONE.

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SERVIA, REVOLUTION IN.—Alexander I., the last of the Obrenovitch dynasty, with Queen Draga, his consort, whom the people hated, and her brothers, one of whom was to have been proclaimed heir apparent to the throne if her plans had gone well, were shot to death in the royal palace in Belgrade soon after midnight on June 11. To make the overthrow of the government complete the premier, General Markovitch, and the minister of the interior, General Todorovitch, were slain in their homes, as were a few other supporters of the unhappy king. This ghastly

KING ALEXANDER AND QUEEN DRAGA OF SERVIA.

work was done by powerful officers of the army, who sought to have the king put away his wife or else abdicate. His refusal to do either led to his assassination.

The extreme unpopularity of the king, particularly since last April, when he suspended the constitution for part of a day and rearranged the government to his satisfaction, deposing many officials whose radical tendencies displeased him, was quite sufficient in itself to produce a revolution. The general hatred for Queen Draga, who was supposed to rule her husband and was arranging to make her brother, Nikodem Lunevich, his successor to the Servian throne, seems, however, to have been the chief reason for the frightful tragedy. One of the leaders in the attack upon the royal pair was Colonel Maschin, brother of the former husband of the queen. The national parliament met June 15 and elected Peter king, who was then formally recognized as ruler of Servia by Austria, Italy and Russia.

The conspiracy against the king was made six weeks ago, although the details were not arranged until the evening of June 10. About 150 officers were in the plot. An attempt was made to poison the king a month ago. The assassins will probably not be punished. One appalling thing about the tragedy is that it caused universal rejoicing among the Servians. Evidently such a people are not highly civilized, or the moral sense would not be so lacking. It has been remarked that Alexander was killed on the thirty-fifth anniversary of the murder of his great-uncle, Prince Michael Obrenovitch.

Alexander was born August 14, 1876, and was, therefore, nearly twenty-seven at the time of his death. Although his mother was famed for her beauty, he was ill-favored in appearance. He took after his father in his looks and his vices. He became king in 1893, being the fifth of his dynasty. He was married (August 5, 1900) to a Russian lady, Madame Draga Maschin, a widow who had been lady-in-waiting to Queen Nathalie.

Prince Peter Karageorgevitch, the newly proclaimed king of Servia, is descended from the popular hero, Black George, who led in the revolt against Turkey. His wife is the daughter of Prince Nicholas of Montenegro. He is a brother-in-law of the king of Italy. This royal pretender and soldier of fortune has lived the life of an adventurer and plotter. He is unquestionably a man of ability and much wealth, which he has quietly used to further the movement that has culminated in the death of Alexander and Draga. It is said that he disapproves their assassination and had favored the plan of banishing them. Since 1891 he has resided in Geneva, and he declares that he will take the government of Switzerland as his model. He is a man of liberal ideas and he believes in the freedom of the press. He is said to be highly respected in the courts of Russia, Austria, and Italy.

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Socialist Movement in America.

BY

A. M. SIMONS,
Editor "International Socialist Review."

THE word socialism may be properly used in two different senses. Primarily, it is the name of a philosophy of society based upon the theory that social evolution proceeds through the struggles of social classes with divergent economic interests. But since the main deduction from this philosophy is that a stage of collective ownership and co-operative operation of industry is destined to succeed our present social organization, the word is quite generally used to designate this prospective social state. The socialist believes that this coming society will be far preferable to the present one, especially from the point of view of the working class. He also thinks that economic development has now proceeded to a point where the coming of this new social stage depends upon teaching the working class the truth of socialist philosophy. Hence it is that the socialists exert their energies in spreading the knowledge of their doctrines and in organizing the workers for political action in accordance therewith. The various manifestations of the forces engaged in such propaganda and organizing work constitute the socialist movement which it is the object of this paper to discuss.

The socialist holds that all intellectual and social phenomena spring primarily from economic conditions. This certainly seems to be true of the socialist movement itself, and particularly in America.

There have been innumerable attempts to create an idealistic Utopian socialist movement in this country. The semi-communistic life lived by the pioneer element in American society prepared the public mind for co-operative ideas. So it was that when, in the 40's and 50's, Fourierism came to this country, it met with a public mind peculiarly receptive to its doctrines. Some of the ablest thinkers and writers of this period enthusiastically embraced communistic doctrines and assisted in the organization of some of the hundreds of colonies which were founded in the hope of realizing the Utopian ideal. The Revolutions of 1848 and the Bismarckian laws of the 70's and 80's drove thousands of exiles with more or less revolutionist and collectivist ideas to this country. When, in 1887, Bellamy's "Looking Backward" appeared, it found a national psychology particularly fitted to accept Utopian socialism. By 1889, Nationalist clubs were to be found in almost every town and city in America; by 1891 the movement had disappeared, leaving scarcely a trace behind it. The economic conditions were not yet here that could give rise to the modern socialist movement.

The dynamic of socialism is the unrest of an exploited proletariat, and until this class arose in America and became of sufficient size and sufficiently isolated from the capitalist class for a sense of class solidarity and antagonism to arise, the modern socialist movement was impossible. The domination of the corporation in the industrial world removed the personal touch between employer and employee, and brought organized labor into conflict with a legal personality, which was little more than a mechanical instrument for the production of profits. Concentration of wealth increased the size of the business unit until escape from the ranks of the workers became almost impossible. This concentration served to demonstrate the truth of that portion of socialist economies which had long declared competition to be self-destructive, while the oppression of monopoly gave rise to a deep-seated social unrest which formed a fertile field for socialist propaganda.

A socialist movement could now arise whose roots ran deep down to the founda-

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tions of American society. Since the trade union was the first expression of the solidarity of the workers, it was inevitable that the socialist movement should derive its greatest strength from the ranks of organized labor. This has been in spite of the hostility of the officials of many of the trade unions. As such officials have to depend upon the *status quo* for their own livelihood as trade union officials, and furthermore, since their work consists largely in adjusting relations between employer and employee, those relations grow so im-

EUGENE V. DEBS.
Socialist orator and writer. Presidential nominee in 1900.

portant in their minds that they cannot conceive of their abolition. In spite of this hostility, however, a large number of local unions have adopted resolutions endorsing socialism. In Cleveland, St. Louis, Omaha, Milwaukee, Los Angeles, and many smaller places, the central governing bodies are definitely committed to the support of socialism. Socialist speakers are found in almost every union. Many of the trade union organs are either open exponents of socialism or frequently contain articles advocating socialist principles. Socialist nominees and officials are almost invariably trade unionists. In the case of any dispute or strike, the socialist party uses its organization to assist in gathering funds. The socialist press always aids in the circulation of boycott notices and, in general, supports all efforts of organized workers to secure better conditions of employment.

The socialists claim that their doctrine is simply the logical outcome of the trade-union movement; that, instead of demanding an increased share of the product, they demand it all, and that to the strike, the boycott, defense fund, and mutual support of the trade unionist they add the additional weapon of the ballot.

When we come to study the growth of the socialist movement geographically, we find some interesting results. As might have been expected, it had its first manifestation in the great cities of the East, particularly in New York City, and for many years this city contained over one-half of the socialist vote of the entire country. Owing in some degree to internal dissensions, and probably still more to the fact that the industrial center of the country is shifting elsewhere, New York has ceased to enjoy this dominant position.

For several years perhaps the most striking growth has been made in the State of Massachusetts. In 1900, Massachusetts polled 9,716 votes for Debs and Harriman; in November, 1902, the socialists polled 33,629 votes in a State election. That this was not a temporary growth is shown by the fact that the town elections that have since been held have shown almost equally startling increases wherever the socialists took part. There are now three socialist members in the Massachusetts Legislature, and a number of towns have socialist mayors and other officials.

Pennsylvania is another State in which the recent growth has been remarkable, the socialist vote having increased from 4,381 in 1900 to 21,910 in November, 1902. Here, the explanation that is at once offered is "Coal Strike." Undoubtedly, this had more than anything else to do with arousing unrest; but the fact that here, as in Massachusetts, local elections held this spring showed even more remarkable increases, resulting in the election of numerous officials, indicates that this growth may be expected to continue. In the Middle West, Illinois holds

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the first position with 20,167 votes in the election of the fall of 1902. About one-half of this vote is to be found in the city of Chicago, although this proportion is continuously decreasing in spite of the rapid growth of the socialist movement in the city because of the still more rapid growth in the smaller towns and cities throughout the State. The recent spring election placed a socialist in the City Council of Chicago.

Ohio and Indiana have shown some peculiarities in the form of socialist movement. Both these States have long had considerable socialist sentiment within their borders. Cincinnati and Indianapolis respectively have been the headquarters of labor and socialist organizations for many years. There is probably more socialistic sentiment in these States than in many States having a much larger vote. In Ohio, at least, this is certainly true. The influence of Tom L. Johnson and Samuel M. Jones has constantly tended to direct much of the socialist sentiment of the State into other channels than those of the regularly organized socialist movement.

JAMES F. CAREY, OF HAVERHILL, MASS.
Socialist member of the Massachusetts legislature.

In the Rocky Mountain States socialism has recently taken a sudden and most remarkable growth. Here, too, there are excellent economic causes for such a phenomenon. The great mass of pioneers who have been constantly moving further west, were largely individuals that rebelled against social restraint, and have now found a final refuge in these States. Recently, the American Labor Union, comprising the Western Federation of Miners and several other organizations, has endorsed the socialist party and is supporting socialism with all the strength of its press and organization. As a result, there are now five socialist members in the Montana Legislature. The city of Anaconda has a full set of socialist officers, and numerous socialist officials have been elected in other places throughout the Rocky Mountain States.

WILLIAM JOHNSON, OF CHICAGO, ILL.
Socialist Alderman in Chicago City Council.

On the Pacific coast the socialist movement has had a somewhat checkered career, but with a continuous growth. San Francisco was one of the first places in the country to have a socialist local, and for many years possessed a German daily socialist paper. Los Angeles is very strongly socialist in sentiment. Owing, however, to the appearance of union labor parties and dissensions within the socialist

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JOHN C. CHASE, OF HAVERHILL, MASS.
The first Socialist mayor in America.

ranks as to the proper attitude of the socialist party towards these new parties, the increase in the vote was checked somewhat during the past year; but all agree that the Independent labor parties always constitute stepping stones to socialism, and that, whatever may be the process of evolution, sooner or later their voters will be found in the ranks of the workers for socialism.

The Populist States have recently furnished signs of a new phase in the development of the socialist movement. Throughout Kansas and Nebraska and the Dakotas, the old populists have been flocking to the socialist standard, and reports from that direction indicate that rather startling developments may be looked for in the near future.

The last few months have seen socialism invade the field from which it had always been excluded in America, the solid South. A national organizer, John C. Chase, has recently made a tour of the South and succeeded in arousing great interest and organizing numerous locals of the socialist party. A little later, two other organizers were sent into this territory by one of the socialist newspapers, and in Alabama the books and entire organization of the old populist party were turned over to be used in organizing the State for socialism.

It is significant that the membership which has come into the socialist party from these localities is quite largely composed of the farming class. This marks the entrance of socialism into a new field. The farmers have always and in all countries been the great obstacle to the growth of socialism. The peculiar situation of the farmers of the Great Plains, however, has made them susceptible to the socialist propaganda. Their complete dependence upon transportation and storage facilities for the marketing of their crops, and the exactions which they have suffered from the owners of these facilities, have aroused in them a class antagonism very much like that which gave rise to the socialist movement among the wage workers.

THE SOCIALIST PRESS.—One of the most striking features of the socialist movement in America has been the rapid growth of its periodical press and general literature. Five years ago, there were not more than three papers in the English language in this country standing undeviatingly upon the socialist position, and the combined circulation of these papers probably did not reach over 25,000. To-day, there are more than a score of papers whose circulation is sufficiently large to entitle them to be called national organs, while of papers confined to local circulations there are probably considerably over 100. The "Appeal to Reason," located in the little town of Girard, Kansas, has a circulation of nearly half a million, with special issues that reach double or three times that number. "The Coming Nation," located at Rich Hil, Missouri, which paper has been established only a little over a year, has a regular circulation of about 50,000 and also has special numbers of much larger circulation, issued quite frequently. "Wilshire's Magazine," published in Canada because of trouble with the American Postal authorities, who have been frequently accused by the socialists of attempting to suppress their literature, is a monthly magazine comparing favorably in size and make-up with many standard ten-cent magazines, and has a circulation of over 100,000, although it, too, is but a year old. In the "Comrade" of New York, the socialists have an illustrated lit-

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erary monthly presenting that side of the question. The "International Socialist Review" is an organ devoted more to scientific discussion of socialism and to articles based on original research. It aims also to maintain a continuous chronicle of the socialist movement, both in America and abroad. In addition to these papers many local organizations of the party publish papers, some of which have national circulations almost equal to those mentioned above, although the majority of such papers are largely confined to their immediate neighborhood.

POLITICAL ORGANIZATION.—The organized portion of the socialist movement is comprised in two socialist parties. One of these, the Socialist Labor Party, with headquarters in New York, is mainly known by its marked hostility to trade unions and has been so rent with internal dissensions as to be well nigh destroyed. The Socialist Party was founded by the union of two previously existing parties in Indianapolis in July, 1901. This party is many times the larger of the two, and comprises within its ranks the real strength of the socialist movement in America. This party has its headquarters, at present, in Omaha, with William Mailly as secretary.

The unit of organization in the socialist party is the "local." This must consist of at least six members, and in the case of New York, Chicago, and a few other large cities, it may have a thousand or more. In these larger locals, as it is manifestly impossible to transact the business at general mass meetings, a delegate body called a central committee is created. As soon as five or more locals exist in any one State, a State committee is elected, which has complete charge of all business affecting the State, and each State is practically autonomous so long as the principles of socialism are not violated.

National officials have been largely occupied hitherto with the work of agitation within unorganized States, but as the number of such States is rapidly decreasing, the work of the national office is now changing. It is taking up the work of coordinating the agitation throughout the country. A large number of organizers and speakers are kept continuously in the field, and, for the first time in its history, the national organization is now raising a National Agitation Fund for the purpose of adding to the number of these workers. Very much of the agitation is carried on by what are called "soap-box orators." There are now probably between fifty and one hundred of these at work throughout the United States, who travel from place to place, requiring of the local socialists only board and lodging, and depending upon the sale of socialist literature and collections taken at the meetings to meet their other expenses.

Their meetings are largely held out of

WILLIAM MAILLY.
National Secretary of the Socialist party, Omaha, Neb.

doors during the summer time. In addition to these men, every city of any size has a corps of speakers, composed of men who are employed during the day, who spend their evenings in open-air agitation.

The socialists of Michigan have reduced this method of agitation more nearly to a system than those of any other State. A list of socialists and their sympathizers was compiled from the subscription lists of socialist periodicals and names secured in other ways. This list was then circularized, asking for volunteers to care for speakers. Those who so volunteered were

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then arranged by circuits, so that each speaker can work within a limited definite territory and economize on railroad fares, which have always been the heaviest expense of the "soap-box orator." When one circuit has been covered by a speaker, he simply changes circuits with another. At the last report of the organizer, Mr. C. J. Lamb of Dryden, Michigan, between twenty-five and thirty speakers had pledged their assistance for the summer, and over one hundred towns had been organized into circuits, and other towns and speakers were being added almost daily. Several other States are preparing to adopt this same plan and thus enable the entire country to be covered at a very slight expense from any central body.

These socialist speakers, as well as a large percentage of the membership of the socialist party, act as agents for the distribution of socialist literature, both periodical and other. The growth of the pamphlet and bound literature of socialism has been even more remarkable than that of its periodical press. Six years ago, a dozen titles would have covered 95 per cent. of the socialist propaganda pamphlets used by the socialists of this country. To date, I have personally collected several hundred different pamphlets and leaflets that have appeared within the last five years. New titles appear almost daily. The increase of bound volumes has been no less striking. From a close knowledge of this side of the work, I should say that fully 500 times as many bound books treating upon socialism are now upon the market in America as there were five years ago.

The socialist party requires that every person becoming a member shall sign an agreement to sever all connection with all other political parties and signify his understanding and adoption of the principles of socialism. The national organization requires five cents a month contribution from each member in the United States. This is collected through the system of due stamps such as exist in the majority of trade unions. These stamps are sold to the State committee of the organized States at five cents each. In May, 1903, there were something over 14,000 of these stamps sold, but the number has steadily increased at the rate of 500 to 1,000 per month during the last year. The State committee then sells these stamps to the locals at ten cents each, retaining the additional five cents for the support of the State organization. The individual members are generally required to pay twenty-five cents per stamp, the additional sum going into the local treasury.

But membership in the party is only the beginning. Every effort is then used to make of this member an intelligent, efficient socialist agitator. Every socialist local is more or less a center of education. The new member is urged to procure subscriptions for the party press, distribute literature among his fellow workers, and, if he possess any abilities whatever of an oratorical character, to fit himself for a public speaker. In addition to this general work there are at least three regularly established schools and correspondence courses which make a specialty of training socialist workers, and although these are operated under private control, they are patronized almost exclusively by members of the socialist party. In some of the largest cities, particularly in Chicago, socialist Sunday Schools are established, where the principles of socialism are taught to both children and adults. There are four such schools in Chicago with from 40 to 100 pupils each. During the winter months, every local of any considerable size arranges for one or more educational courses in socialism. Many debating societies, speakers' clubs, and similar organizations exist for the special purpose of training speakers and writers.

The following table gives the vote of the two socialist parties at the last congressional elections. The vote of the socialist party in 1900 is also given. For purpose of comparison, it is taken for granted that the socialist vote in 1902 in those States in which there was no socialist ticket in the field would at least have remained as large as in 1900. If this be true the increase in two years has been something like 250 per cent. In many cases, these very States were just the ones in which the socialist sentiment is increasing most rapidly, so that the totals are certain to be much below the fair estimate of the socialist strength at present.

The vote of the Socialist Party in the United States in 1900 was 98,585; in 1902, 231,111. The vote of the Socialist Labor Party in 1902 was 51,507.

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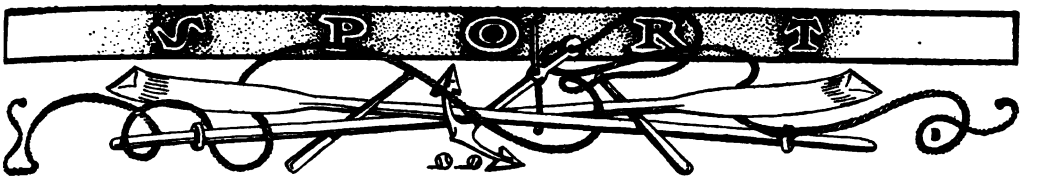

Review of the Month.

BY

FRED A. HAYNER.

ATHLETICS.—Yale won the Mott Haven meet by the narrowest kind of margin on Saturday, May 30th. Her score was 41½ and that of her closest rival, Harvard, was 41. Excitement was intense and the interest was maintained to the last event of the day, which proved to be the 220-yard dash. In this event Harvard to win the meet must take first and second honors. Lightner won the event for Harvard all right, but a Yale man, Moulton, won second place, beating out Harvard's hope, Schick. Yale in winning this meet also took permanent possession of the inter-collegiate cup, earning the last shield in the above sensational manner.

Points won by other colleges were: Cornell, 16; Princeton, 11½; Syracuse, 11; Amherst, 9; Georgetown, 8; Penna, 3, and Williams, 2.

Schutt of Cornell easily won the two-mile race in 9:40, a new record. F. G. Beck of Yale broke the shot put mark with 46 feet. On the previous day, in the preliminary trial, he also broke the record, doing the distance of 44 feet 11½ inches. The summaries follow:

100-yard dash, first heat, semi-finals—Won by F. R. Moulton, Yale; W. A. Schick, Harvard, second. Time, :10 1-5.

Second heat—Won by A. F. Duffy, Georgetown; M. T. Lightner, Harvard, second. Time, :10.

100-yard dash, final heat—Won by A. F. Duffy, Georgetown; F. R. Moulton, Yale, second; W. A. Schick, Harvard, third; M. L. Lightner, Harvard, fourth. Time, :09 4-5.

120-yard hurdles, semi-finals, first heat—Won by J. H. Converse, Harvard; J. L. Anderson, Yale, second. Time, :16.

Second heat—Won by E. J. Clapp, Yale; E. L. Ketchum, Cornell, second. Time, :15 4-5.

120-yard hurdle, final heat—Won by E. J. Clapp, Yale; J. H. Converse, Harvard, second; E. L. Ketchum, Cornell, third; W. L. Anderson, Yale, fourth. Time, :15 3-5.

440-yard dash—Won by J. E. H. Tight, Harvard; J. A. Reilly, Georgetown, second; P. A. Rogers, Cornell, third; W. G. Clerk, Harvard, fourth. Time, :50 1-5.

Mile run—Won by W. A. Colwell, Harvard; C. R. Alcott, Yale, second; F. W. Poate, Cornell, third; D. McMilliken, Cornell, fourth. Time, 4:30 3-5.

Two-mile run—Won by W. E. Schutt, Cornell; A. C. Bowen, Pennsylvania, second; A. King, Harvard, third. Time, 9:40.

Shot put—Won by F. G. Beck, Yale, distance 46 feet; C. H. Schoenfuss, Harvard, second, distance 44 feet 6 inches; C. H. Robinson, Harvard, third, distance 44 feet 2 inches.

440-yard run—Won by J. E. H. Tight, Harvard; J. A. Reilly, Georgetown, second; P. A. Rogers, Cornell, third. Time, :50 1-5.

Pole vault—Won by H. L. Gardner, Syracuse, height 11 feet 7 inches; W. McLanahan, Yale, second, height 11 feet 3 inches; D. S. Horton, Princeton, and W. M. Adriance, Yale, tied at 11 feet.

Running high jump—Won by R. P. Kernan, Harvard, distance 6 feet 1 inch; W. C. Lowe, Syracuse, second, distance 5 feet 11¾ inches; J. W. Alexander, Yale, third, distance 5 feet 10¾ inches.

220-yard hurdles—First heat won by E. J. Clapp, Yale; E. Cairus, Cornell, second. Time, :26 1-5.

Second heat won by J. Thomas, Jr., Yale; F. R. Bauer, Harvard, second. Time, :25 4-5.

220-yard hurdles, final heat—Won by E. J. Clapp, Yale; E. Cairns, Cornell, second; J. B. Thomas, Yale, third. Time, :25 1-5.

Hammer throw—Won by J. R. Dewitt, Princeton, distance 155 feet 3 inches; C. Vanduyn, Syracuse, second, distance 151 feet 5½ inches; M. G. Harris, Yale, third, distance 142 feet 10 inches.

880-yard run—Won by L. M. Adsit, Princeton; G. E. Behr, Harvard, second; W. A. Newell, Williams, third. Time, 2:04 2-5.

Running broad jump—Won by W. P. Hubbard, Amherst, distance 22 feet 4½ inches; A. T. Foster, Amherst, second, distance 22 feet 3 inches; C. A. Fulton, Yale, third, distance 22 feet ¾ inch.

220-yard dash, final heat—Won by M. T. Lightner, Harvard; F. S. Moulton, Yale, second; W. A. Schick, Harvard, third. Time, :22.

Total points—Yale, 41½; Harvard, 41; Cornell, 16; Princeton, 11½; Syracuse, 11; Amherst, 9; Georgetown, 8; Pennsylvania, 3; Williams, 2.

In the west, Michigan captured the Conference College track meet by a score of 49 points. The meet took place on Saturday, May 30th, on Marshall Field, the athletic grounds of the University of Chicago.

The day was cold and rainy and a heavy wind blowing. Points were distributed as follows:

Michigan, 49; Chicago, 40; Wisconsin, 10; Purdue, 6; Illinois, 5; Iowa, 5; Northwestern, 5; Beloit, 4; Oberlin, 1; Missouri, 1.

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ARCHIE HAHN.
Michigan winner of the 220-yard dash, which was run in 21 3-5 seconds.

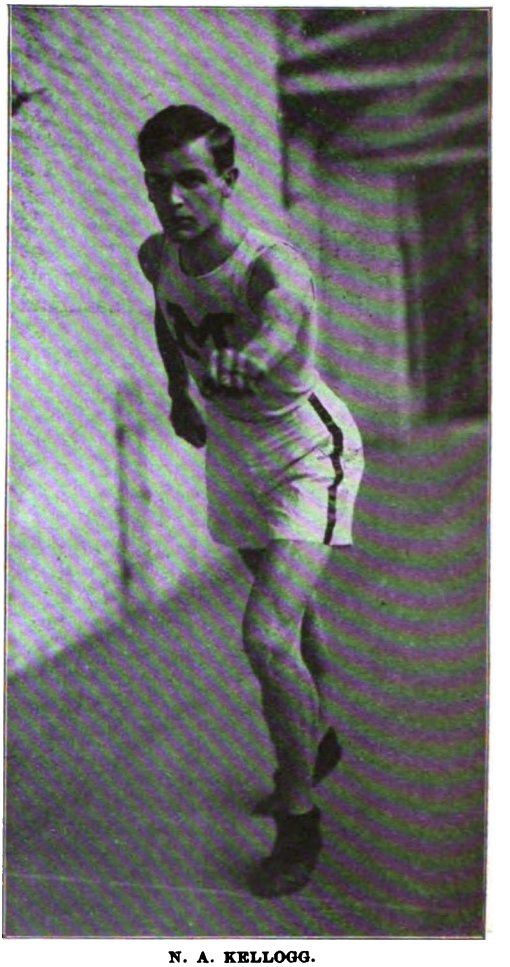
Michigan secures permanent possession of the Spalding Cup, having won it three times.

Six Conference records were broken. Blair of Chicago was forced to run the hundred in :09 4-5 to beat Archie Hahn of Michigan. The Conference records broken were:

100-yard dash—:09 4-5, made by Clyde Blair, Chicago.
220-yard dash—:21 3-5, made by Archie Hahn, Michigan.
2-mile run—10:02 2-5, made by N. A. Kellogg, Michigan.
Discus throw—117 feet 7½ inches, made by C. H. Swift, Iowa.
Pole vault—11 feet 9 inches, made by Charles Dvorak, Michigan.
High jump—5 feet 11 inches, made by S. Brewer, Michigan.

The summaries:

120-yard hurdles—First heat won by Saradakis, Wisconsin; Kelly, Chicago, second. Time, :16 2-5.
Second heat—Won by Catlin, Chicago; Anderson, Iowa, second. Time, :15 3-5.
120-yard hurdles, final heat—Won by Catlin, Chicago; Saradakis, Wisconsin, second; Kelly, Chicago, third. Time, :15 4-5. (Catlin won easily and Saradakis the same. Kelly knocked down all but one hurdle.)
100-yard dash—First heat won by Hahn, Michigan; Knox, Beloit, second. Time, :10 2-5.
Second heat—Won by Blair, Chicago; Stewart, Michigan, second. Time, :10.
Third heat—Won by Senn, Chicago; Chapman, Wisconsin, second. Time, :10 1-5.
100-yard dash, final heat—Won by Blair, Chicago; Hahn, Michigan, second; Stewart, Michigan, third. Time, :09 4-5. (New western intercollegiate record.) Blair and Hahn raced as a pair, first one and then the other ahead. Blair nosed ahead at the finish.
Mile run—Won by Hearn, Purdue; Matthews, Chicago, second; Conger, Michigan, third. Time, 4:32 3-5. Conger set the pace, and the Michigan trio led until the last lap, when Hearn made a sprint and won easily.
440-yard run—Won by Taylor, Chicago; Rebstock, Michigan, second; Poage, Wisconsin, third. Time, :52 3-5. Taylor took the lead at the start and held it throughout. He tired in the finish and barely held his place.



N. A. KELLOGG.
Michigan winner of two-mile run, which was made in 10 minutes, 2 2-5 seconds.

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Discus throw—Won by Swift, Iowa; Speik, Chicago, second; Maddock, Michigan, third. Distance, 117 feet 7½ inches. (New western intercollegiate record.)

220-yard dash, first heat—Won by Blair, Chicago; Varco, Minnesota, second. Time, :22 3-5.

Second heat—Won by Dillon, Oberlin; Hahn, Michigan, second. Time, :22 2-5.

Third heat—Won by Senn, Chicago; Chapman, Wisconsin, second. Time, :23 1-5.

Final heat—Won by Hahn, Michigan; Blair, Chicago, second; Dillon, Oberlin, third. Time, :21 3-5.

220-yard hurdles—First heat won by Stewart, Michigan; Poage, Wisconsin, second; Kelly, Chicago, third. Time, :26 2-5.

Second heat—Won by Ferris, Chicago; Catlin, Chicago, second; Norcross, Michigan, third. Time, :26.

220-yard low hurdles—Final heat won by Catlin, Chicago; Poage, Wisconsin, second; Stewart, Michigan, third. Time, :25 1-5. (Catlin won easily, with Poage barely getting second place from Stewart.)

Shot put—Won by Rothgeb, Illinois. Distance, 40 feet 3⅞ inches. Maddock, Michigan, second, 40 feet 3½ inches; Knox, Beloit, third, 39 feet 8½ inches.

Half-mile run—Won by Hall, Michigan; Cahill, Chicago, second; Verner, Purdue, third. Time, 2:02 3-5. Moore of Chicago set a fast pace for the first quarter. Cahill took the lead on the back stretch and held it round the turn, but Hall pulled past him in the finish and breasted the tape three yards to the good.

Two-mile run—Won by Kellogg, Michigan; Stone, Michigan, second; Hall, Chicago, third. Time, 10:02 2-5 (new intercollegiate record). Gale of Chicago set the pace for four laps, Hall took the lead and led until Kellogg gained it at the last lap. Stone was the surprise of the event, beating both Hall and McEachron.

Pole vault—Won by Dvorak, Michigan, height 11 feet 9 inches; Magee, Chicago, second, 10 feet 11½ inches; Knox, Beloit, third, 10 feet 6 inches. (Dvorak's performance breaks the Conference record of 11 feet 6½ inches, held by Chapman of Drake.)

Hammer throw—Won by Maddock, Michigan; Long, Wisconsin, second; Hays, Missouri, third. Distance, 129 feet 2 inches.

Relay race—Won by Chicago (Cahill, Moore, Buckwalter and Taylor); Michigan second; Minnesota third. Time, 3:36.

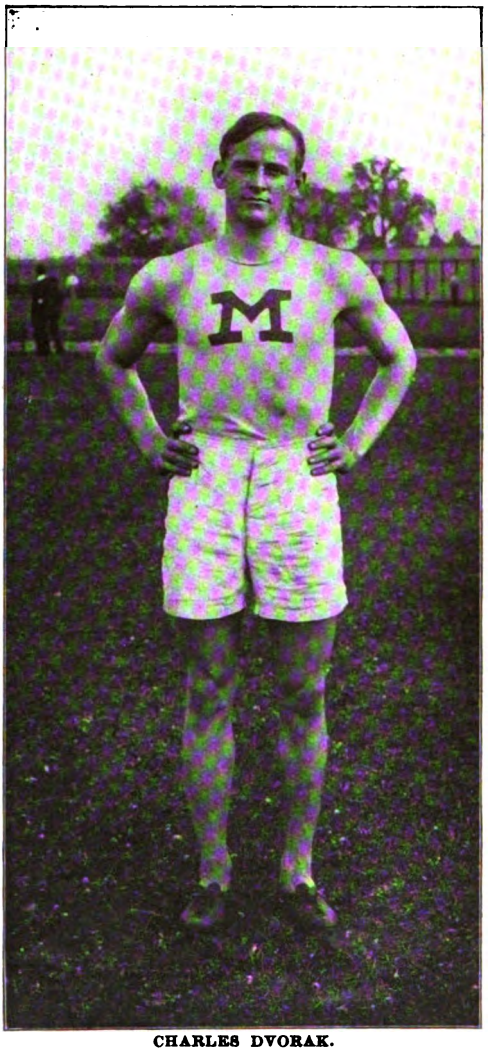
High jump—Won by Brewer, Michigan; Miller, Michigan, second; McRae, Beloit, third. Height, 9 feet 11 inches. (New western intercollegiate record.)

Broad jump—Won by Davis, Northwestern; Friend, Chicago, second; Knox, Beloit, third. Distance, 20 feet 8 4-5 inches.

At London, June 1, Alfred Shrubb ran two miles on a grass track at Ilford Saturday in 9 minutes 11 seconds, beating all records for both grass and cinder tracks. The eastern college mark, made May 30, is 9:40. The Conference college meet in the West made the distance in 10:02 2-5.

EASTERN AND WESTERN COLLEGE RECORDS COMPARED

West			East	
		RECORDS EQUAL		
0:09 4-5	Blair	100-yd	Duffy	0:09 4-5
0:15 3-5	Catlin	120-yd	Clapp	0:15 3-5
0:25 1-5 (Curved track)	Catlin	220 hur	Clapp (Straightaway)	0:25 1-5
		WEST LEADS		
0:21 3-5 (Curved track)	Hahn	220-yd	Lightner (Straightaway)	0:22
2:02 3-5	Hall	880-yd	Tight	2:04 2-5
11 ft. 9 in.	Dvorak	Pole vt	Gardner	11 ft. 7 in.
		EAST LEADS		
0:52 3-5	Taylor	440-yd	Tight	0:50 1-5
4:32 3-5	Hearn	Mile	Colwell	4:30 3-5
10:02 2-5	Kellogg	2-mile	Schutt	9:40
5 ft. 11 in.	Brewer	H. J.	Kernan	6 ft. 1 in.
21 ft. 8 4-5	Davis	B. J.	Hubbard	22 ft. 4½
40 ft 3 7-8	Rothgeb	Shot put	Beck	46 ft.
129 ft. 2 in.	Maddock	Hammer	Dewitt	155 ft. 3 in.



CHARLES DVORAK.
Michigan winner of pole vault.

Yale's track team, through graduate manager, C. H. Sherill, has declined the challenge from Rev. Mr. Gray, Queen's College, Cambridge, for an inter-'varsity track meet.

Oberlin's track team won the "Big Six" meet at Cleveland on Thursday, May 28th by a score of 70 2-3 points. Case was second with 49 1-3. Third place went to Ohio State with 28 points; Reserve earned 10; Kenyon, 4, and Wesleyan, 2.

The summaries:

220-yard hurdle—S. F. Bellows (Oberlin), won; J. L. Connors (Ohio State), 2; W. L. Bissell (W. R. U.), 3; W. K. Van Cleef (Oberlin), 4. Time, :26 4-5.

100-yard dash—T. E. Green (Case), won; L. T. Dillon (Oberlin), 2; J. S. Miller (Oberlin), 3; F. E. Hall (Kenyon), 4. Time, 10 seconds.

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LACROSSE TEAM OF THE UNIVERSITY OF PENNSYLVANIA.

1-mile run—W. A. Yeagle (Ohio State), won; E. Anderson (Oberlin), 2; E. H. McDaniels (Oberlin), 3; L. Van Epps (Case), 4. Time, 4:34 3-5.

440-yard dash—H. H. Dawson (Case), won; R. W. Patterson (Oberlin), 2; W. Klie (Ohio State), 3; A. L. Brown (Kenyon), 4. Time, :52 1-5.

120-yard hurdle—W. K. Van Cleef (Oberlin), won; G. Mills (Case), 2; S. F. Bellows (Oberlin), 3; W. L. Bissell (W. R. U.), 4. Time, :16 2-5.

2-mile run—R. F. Berryman (Oberlin), won; F. W. Vincent (Oberlin), 2; R. P. Greenleaf (Case), 3; R. L. Harding (Ohio State), 4. Time, 10:15.

220-yard dash—L. T. Dillon (Oberlin), won; T. E. Green (Case), 2; P. Nemeyer, (Ohio State), 3; N. B. Prentice (W. R. U.), 4. Time, :22 1-5.

Half-mile run—C. W. Hogue (Ohio State), won; F. C. Kellogg (Oberlin), 2; W. H. Brown (Kenyon), 3; H. E. Mills (Case), 4. Time, 1:58 2-5.

1-mile relay—Won by Case team (Chandler, Graf, Green, Dawson). Time, 3:31 4-5; second, Ohio State (Nye, Nemeyer, Hagaman, Klie); third, Oberlin (Dillon, Miller, Patterson, Anderson).

Shot put—J. F. Lincoln (O. S. U.), won; P. S. Hillis (Oberlin), second; R. Kauffman (Case), third; J. A. Williams (Oberlin), fourth. Distance, 37 3-10 feet.

Broad jump—T. E. Green (Case), won; E. K. Bacon (Oberlin), second; W. T. Miller (Reserve), third; L. S. Miller (Oberlin), fourth. Distance, 20 9-10 feet.

Pole vault—W. D. Thomas (Case), G. F. Hammond (Oberlin), R. F. Foley (Oberlin) tied for first place; W. B. Marquardt (O. S. U.), fourth. Height, 10 feet 4 inches.

Discus throw—R. Kauffman (Case), won; J. A. Williams (Oberlin), second; H. L. Kellar (O. W. U.), third; E. Anderson (Oberlin), fourth. Distance, 105 55-100 feet.

High jump—S. F. Bellows (Oberlin), won; H. K. Heebner (Oberlin), second; T. E. Green (Case), third; J. L. Conant (Reserve), and Vicary (Case), tied for fourth. Height, 5 feet 6¼ inches.

Hammer throw—R. Kauffman (Case), won; D. L. Dugan (Reserve), second; P. E. Miller (Case), third; J. F. Lincoln (O. S. U.), fourth. Distance, 122 85-100 feet.

Amherst won the seventeenth annual championship meet of the New England Inter-collegiate Athletic Association on May 23rd by a score of 51, the largest score in the history of this association. Williams scored 31 points and Technology 30. The summaries:

100-yard dash—Won by F. L. Thompson, Amherst; G. L. Swasey, Dartmouth, second; R. S. Franklin, M. I. T., third; C. F. Jenks, Bowdoin, fourth. Time, :10 1-5.

One mile run—Won by E. F. Jenkins, M. I. T.; C. A. Campbell, Dartmouth, second; B. Mears, Williams, third; Saunders, Williams, fourth. Time, 4 minutes 21 2-5 seconds.

120-yard hurdles—Won by L. G. Blackmer, Williams; E. L. Ovington, M. I. T.; second; C. R. Haynes, M. I. T., third; E. V. Lewis, Williams, fourth. Time, 16 seconds.

Quarter-mile run—Won by H. E. Taylor, Amherst; R. E. Martin, Wesleyan, second; E. H. Leaning, Williams, third; C. R. Blyth, Amherst, fourth. Time, 51 4-5 seconds.

Half-mile run—Won by H. E. Taylor, Amherst; W. A. Newell, Williams, second; R. F. Patterson, University of Maine, third; R. E. Lewis, Dartmouth, fourth. Time, 2:07.

220-yard dash—Won by F. L. Thompson, Amherst; G. L. Swasey, Dartmouth, second; R. S. Franklin, M. I. T., third; H. L. Williams, M. I. T., fourth. Time, 22 3-5 seconds.

220-yard hurdles—Won by W. P. Hubbard, Amherst; H. J. Hunt, Bowdoin, second; E. L. Ovington, third; R. W. Neal, Dartmouth, fourth. Time, 26 1-5 seconds.

Two-mile run—Won by F. B. Riley, M. I. T.; H. W. Dye, Williams, second; E. Benson, Wesleyan, third; C. F. Corner, Wesleyan, fourth. Time, 10:40 4-5.

Running high jump—L. G. Blackmer, Williams and H. E. Taylor, Amherst, tied for first; height, 5 feet 8¾ inches; R. N. Ernst, Williams, third, height, 5 feet 7½ inches; J. E. Griffin, Dartmouth, fourth; height, 5 feet 6½ inches.

Putting the shot—Won by R. E. Rollins, Am-

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herst, distance, 42 feet 3 inches; A. C. Denning, Bowdoin, second; distance, 41 feet 1¼ inches; J. W. Park, Amherst, third; distance, 40 feet 3 inches; V. H. Place, Dartmouth, fourth.

Throwing 16-pound hammer—Won by A. C. Denning, Bowdoin, distance 129 feet 6 inches; J. W. Park, Amherst, second, distance 120 feet 8 inches; B. E. Lindsay, M. I. T., third, distance, 117 feet; E. A. Dunlap, Bowdoin, fourth, distance 114 feet 4 inches.

Throwing the discus—Won by F. Ehmke, Brown, distance 115 feet 3 inches; J. W. Park, Amherst, second, distance 109 feet 4 inches; V. M. Place, Dartmouth, third, distance 108 feet 7 inches; L. G. Morrill, M. I. T., fourth, distance 107 feet 9 inches.

Running broad jump—Won by W. P. Hubbard, Amherst; A. T. Foster, Amherst, second; H. C. Van Weelden, Trinity, third; Blackmer, Williams, fourth. Distance 22 feet 7 inches.

Pole vault—Won by W. H. Peabody of Williams. Height, 11 feet ½ inch. G. A. Curtis, M. I. T.; F. P. Fletcher, Wesleyan, and W. Squires, Williams, tied for other places at 10 feet 9½ inches.

LACROSSE.—For five years it has been the height of every University of Pennsylvania student's ambition to defeat Harvard in a dual athletic meet. The only time the red and blue has succeeded in lowering the crimson was in 1901, when Pennsylvania won the intercollegiate championship on the cricket field. May 15, however, the lacrosse team of Pennsylvania turned the tables on Harvard in a manner that created the greatest enthusiasm at the university, winning by five goals to one. The Harvard players were older at the game than their opponents, but scientific stick work by the Pennsylvania boys proved too much for the New Haven men.

BASEBALL.—One of the most remarkable exhibitions lovers of the national game have ever followed was that given by the Chicago National League team on its first eastern trip this spring. Up to the time they played New York they had won 16 out of 17 games played. In New York they lost two out of three. Returning home, they forged into first place by outclassing and winning three games from the St. Louis team.

The standing of the clubs on June 15 follows:

NATIONAL LEAGUE.

Club	Won	Lost	Per Ct.
New York	34	14	.708
Pittsburg	35	17	.673
Chicago	34	18	.654
Brooklyn	24	23	.511
Cincinnati	21	26	.447
Boston	19	28	.404
Philadelphia	14	32	.304
St. Louis	15	38	.283

AMERICAN LEAGUE.

Club	Won	Lost	Per Ct.
Boston	28	17	.622
Philadelphia	29	18	.617
Cleveland	23	19	.548
St. Louis	21	19	.523
Chicago	21	21	.500
New York	19	23	.452
Detroit	20	25	.444
Washington	13	32	.289

AMERICAN ASSOCIATION.

Club	Won	Lost	Per Ct.
Milwaukee	28	14	.667
St. Paul	27	18	.600
Indianapolis	25	21	.543
Minneapolis	21	23	.477
Louisville	21	24	.467
Kansas City	18	21	.462
Columbus	20	26	.435
Toledo	15	28	.348

WESTERN LEAGUE.

Club	Won	Lost	Per Ct.
Colorado Springs	28	12	.700
Milwaukee	21	12	.636
Kansas City	21	15	.583
Denver	18	22	.450
Peoria	15	19	.441
St. Joseph	14	20	.412
Des Moines	14	21	.400
Omaha	11	21	.344

THREE EYES.

Club	Won	Lost	Per Ct.
Bloomington	24	16	.600
Cedar Rapids	20	15	.571
Rock Island	20	15	.571
Decatur	18	17	.518
Rockford	18	17	.518
Davenport	14	18	.438
Springfield	15	21	.417
Dubuque	13	23	.361

CENTRAL LEAGUE.

Club	Won	Lost	Per Ct.
Evansville	28	13	.683
Marion	23	14	.621
Fort Wayne	26	16	.619
Dayton	19	23	.452
Grand Rapids	19	23	.452
Wheeling	19	25	.432
South Bend	19	26	.422
Terre Haute	14	27	.341

HORSES.—The Brooklyn handicap this year was run May 28 and won by Irish Lad, a bare head in front of Gunfire, lowering Bannister's race mark of 2:06¼ to 2:05 2-5, which equals Gold Heel's world's record for the distance. Irish Lad is a 3-year-old, eligible to the American Derby honors, owned by Harry Payne Whitney and H. B. Duryea and ridden by Jockey O'Neill. Gunfire, winner of the Metropolitan, owned by William C. Whitney, ridden by Burns, made a truly wonderful run.

Sir James Miller's Rock Sand scored a popular victory in the race for the big English Derby May 27. M. Edmond Blanc's French crack, Vinicius, was second and Sir D. Cooper's Flotsam third. Herman B. Duryea's Acefull, the only American representative, came in sixth, just after King Edward's Mead.

With a more experienced jockey in the saddle the result, so far as the first two places are concerned, might possibly have been different. Little Thompson, Vinicius' rider, was considered to have made his effort too late. An American jockey has now ridden a Derby winner for three years in succession. Lester Reiff won on Volodyovski in 1901, "Skeets" Martin on

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"ROCK SAND," THE WINNER OF THE ENGLISH DERBY.

Ard Patrick in 1902, and now "Danny" Maher.

Judge Himes, 3-year-old colt belonging to Charley Ellison, won both the Kentucky Derby and the Hawthorne Handicap in the West. He took the Kentucky Derby on May 2nd at Louisville and on May 25th won the handicap at Hawthorne in Chicago.

CYCLING.—Harry D. Elkes, the middle-distance champion, was killed in an accident in a cycle race at Boston May 30.

That more men are not killed behind the motors is wondered at by the spectators, for hardly a middle-distance race of the present time is run without at least one accident, generally caused by a bursting tire or something going wrong with the motor. Elkes met his death through a tire accident.

Elkes was undoubtedly the greatest middle-distance rider that ever mounted a bicycle, not even excepting Jimmy Michael. Not only in this country, but abroad, did Elkes demonstrate his superiority and as a speed merchant back of pace he had few rivals.

STREET CARS, CROWDED, A MENACE TO HEALTH AND DIGNITY.—The general public is practically ignoring a subject whose vital importance has long impressed every physician and every student of hygiene,—the menace to public health and the ruffianizing of popular manners and instincts from the unsanitary and uncomfortable condition of the street cars in our large cities. With the spectacle of the crowded street car before us, the boast of the "achievements of civilization" seems a hollow mockery; for this packed vehicle is the greatest of uncivilizers. Theoretically, the trolley car is a sanitary improvement over the conveyance of an earlier day, but practically it is an invention of doubtful hygienic value. If we name in its favor greater size, higher speed, and better heating and lighting facilities, we must also take into consideration the fact that it is ill adapted to carry the vast number of people that ride in it. Under present conditions, greater size does not insure greater convenience; in the "rush" hours of night and morning, it means great discomfort. A car with a seating capacity of twenty or thirty people carrying from forty to sixty passengers resembles nothing so much as the Black Hole of Calcutta, with its prisoners dying of the poison of one another's breath.

The sanitary effects of overcrowding are not speculative. The accumulation of statistical and analytical evidence to prove that persons who breathe poor air and occupy crowded quarters furnish high death-rates, has gone on steadily for years. Moreover, it is well-known that air vitiated by the lungs is low in oxygen, high in carbonic acid, and high in organic matter. Want of enough oxygen, in the presence of products of respiration in the air, causes a reduction of heart-action, increases the rate of respiration, tendency toward headache, loss of appetite, reduction of vitality, nervous exhaustion, and in severe cases or in delicate organizations, nausea may be an immediate result of breathing foul air. Many who have traveled in overcrowded street cars are familiar with some of these effects and are aware of their injurious nature. Foul air, crowding, and jostling combine to make street-car riding a hardship. The fatigue of the street-car posture often proves the last straw that breaks tired humanity's back. Several cases have been cited of individuals who have succumbed to this riding weariness. A seat at the right moment often prevents a collapse. Pleas for seats in the cars used to be based solely on the desire for comfort and convenience, but now they might be demanded in the name of humanitarianism. So trying on the nerves and temper is the present state of things in connection with street-car travel that a man may enter a car a gentleman and come out a savage, and no woman can feel like a lady when

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she is being elbowed and shouldered about in a crowded car. Culture cannot preserve dignity and equanimity when it is raised off its feet one moment, to be let down and have its toes trodden on the next, and every moment to be dug in the ribs with elbows and squeezed. Most of those whose health is not ruined by years of such experience become selfish in spirit and boorish in manner.

Of course the most dangerous thing about a crowded street car is its bad air. Poor ventilation impairs the natural vigor of the tissues of the air-passages of the nose and throat, which normally have the power to reject or destroy dangerous bacteria, and thus paves the way for bronchial and pulmonary diseases. The part played by human beings in gathering and giving off bacteria in the cars should be borne in mind. The number of bacteria inhaled by a human being under ordinary circumstances may reach many thousands during one hour's tranquil breathing. Bacteria are freely given off in particles of moisture by persons in the act of speaking, coughing, or sneezing. To those who have ridden during the "rush" hours of winter in the street cars of New York and Chicago, the fact that these cars are poorly ventilated needs no demonstration. The public appreciates that the musty odor noticeable in ill-ventilated street cars indicates the presence of waste matters in the atmosphere, which should have been promptly got rid of. The respiration of an average adult vitiates 396 cubic inches of air per minute. The great amount of dilution necessary to make this vitiated air suitable for further respiration is easily understood; for we know that, while fresh air contains about three parts of carbon dioxide, and air which has passed through the lungs 441 parts of carbon dioxide per ten thousand volumes, the air of inclosed spaces becomes close when the carbon dioxide exceeds about five parts per ten thousand. From these data it is found that about 50 cubic feet of fresh air per person should be admitted to each car every minute. It need not be stated that no such allowance of fresh air is supplied to passengers on any closed cars when they are running beyond their seating capacity. The only ventilation is afforded by the opening of the doors for the entrance or exit of passengers, or by primitive transoms, and not by carefully regulated ventilators. Repeated accounts of New York trolley cars in cold weather have shown that about sixty per cent. had all their transoms closed, and some of them were found to contain 26.2 parts of carbonic acid gas. Nor are the street cars of Chicago in any better condition.

Analysis has often shown that the street atmosphere of cities contains many species of bacteria; but examination of the mats on street-car floors has shown that fibers an inch and a half long may hold three or four million bacteria. To anybody who has noticed the universal and disgusting habit of spitting, the origin of many of these disease germs is obvious. The steps and platforms, with their disgusting accumulations of sand, the cocoa mats of the elevated roads, and the gratings on the floors of the surface cars are favorite places for those who indulge in this dangerous habit. The findings of bacteriology leave no doubt as to what becomes of the products of expectoration. After they dry they are pulverized underfoot and then fly through the air with the dust. How far the habit of spitting in street cars is responsible for the eight thousand deaths in New York City every year from tuberculosis can safely be left to the reader's imagination. Tuberculosis, however, is probably not the only disease propagated by street cars. From the facts already known concerning the etiology of other infectious diseases, there can be little doubt that the poisons of scarlet fever, measles, influenza, diphtheria, pneumonia, and perhaps smallpox, are communicated from one human being to another through the impure air and close personal contact that occur in the cars.

Whether near or far, the time is bound to come when to part with a nickel for street-car fare, instead of insuring the loss of one's health, comfort, and dignity, will insure a seat and the comfort that can never be known in cars while there is standing room only. There are plenty of remedies for the sanitary evils of street cars. In the first place, the public needs to be aroused to appreciate the necessity of utilizing the power of a community to make ordinances for the public safety. Moreover, it seems necessary to state that it is not enough to make laws without enforcing them.

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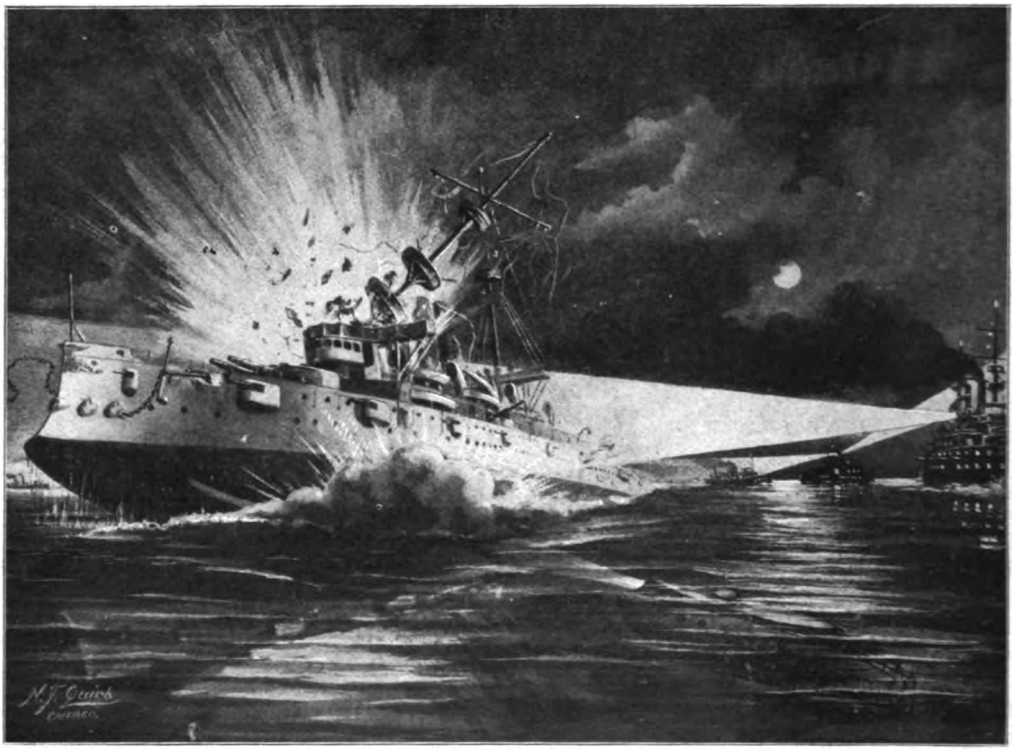
The Submarine Boat

BY

NICHOLAS J. QUIRK.

IF Admiral George Dewey's opinion has any weight, the submarine torpedo boat will be an important factor in the naval wars of the future, for he has said that "two such vessels in the hands of the Spaniards would have rendered impossible the work of the American fleet in Manila Bay, May 1, 1898." This opinion is strengthened by the performances of the American torpedo boat *Holland* in successful attacks on a blockading fleet of warships, and the submergence trial of the *Fulton*, which on November 23, with a crew of seven, including high naval officers, remained under water fifteen hours, the men eating and sleeping in comfort while a storm raged above them so severe that 32 persons were rescued by the "breeches-buoy" from a bark wrecked close by. The men on board the *Fulton* never knew there was a disturbance until they reached the surface next morning and Captain Cable said he would have remained down a while longer had they known the weather was so very bad. This test means that such a vessel at her accredited speed of 8 knots could travel 120 nautical miles without taking breath, make the round of an entire hostile fleet, spend the day in deliberate torpedo work, merely raising her conning tower to the surface an instant now and then to secure



THE SUBMARINE IN ACTION.
Possible result of night attack on the U. S. Cruiser *New York* by the *Holland* boat.

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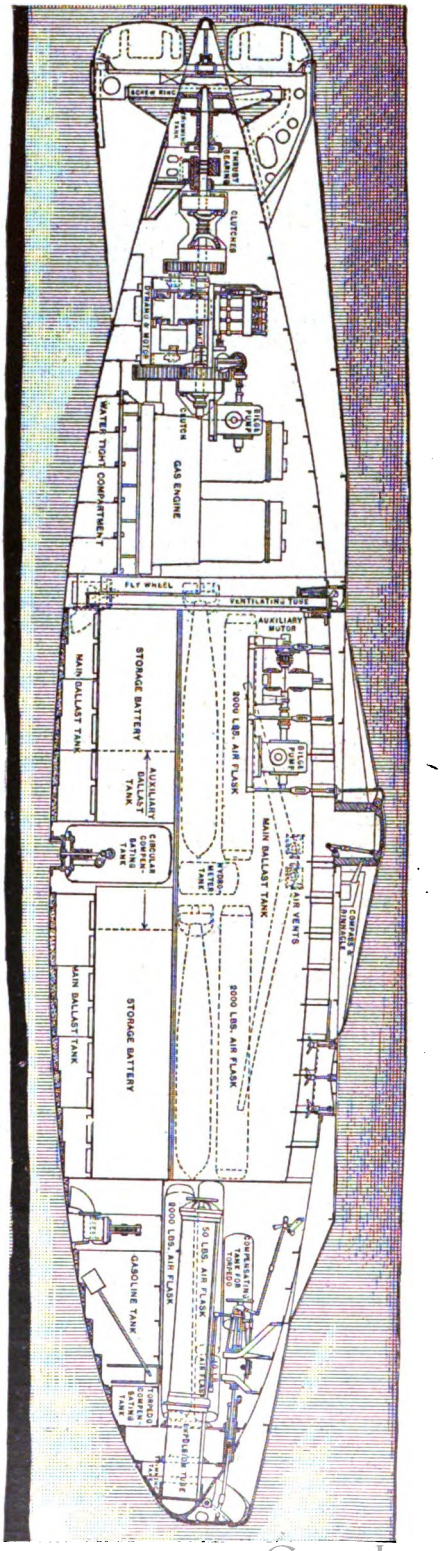
bearings and disappear before a gun could be trained upon her.

With the advent of the modern armored ships, perfected weapons can hurl hundreds of tons of steel projectiles into an incredibly small area in a wonderfully short time, but since this destroyer has appeared, these costly floating fortresses lose much of their effectiveness. Before the suicidal torpedo boat has had even half a fair trial in actual warfare, she bids fair to be superseded by the submarine. This quiet little turtle-back is exceedingly business-like. Starting from an absolutely safe distance and submerging herself in that cheapest and most effective armor, salt water (a substance as superior to "Kruppized" steel for turning the point of a shell as the latter is to tissue paper), this little viper can, if necessary, clamp torpedoes to the battleship's keel as thickly as buttons on a soldier's blouse. The submarine torpedo boat, *Holland,* which is one of the most important additions to the navy, is a steel shell 54 feet long and pointed at the ends. She is 10½ feet wide.

Within this comparatively small space is stowed away 20 tons of machinery and fittings. This apparatus consists of a 50-horsepower gasoline engine, which runs the propeller when the boat is on the surface of the water. The engine also charges the storage batteries with electricity. The electrical power is drawn upon to propel the boat below the water's surface when the gasoline engine could not be operated, as it would vitiate the air inside the vessel. In the bow of the boat are her means of offensive warfare. The most important is a torpedo tube pointing straight ahead on a line with her keel. This is for discharging torpedoes under water at hostile ships. There is another torpedo tube in the bow pointing upward at an angle of about 20 degrees, which is to be used for firing aerial torpedoes. This is intended for the purpose of hurling a torpedo through the air at a distance of a mile, either at a warship or at a fortification, in case the torpedo boat is used as a means of attack against a foreign port. The chief use for which the submarine boat is intended, however, is for coast defense and harbor defense along the extensive sea-coasts of the United States.

The boat is made to dive under the surface by opening the air chambers in the



LONGITUDINAL SECTION OF *HOLLAND* SUBMARINE BOAT.
From current report of the Secretary of the United States Navy.

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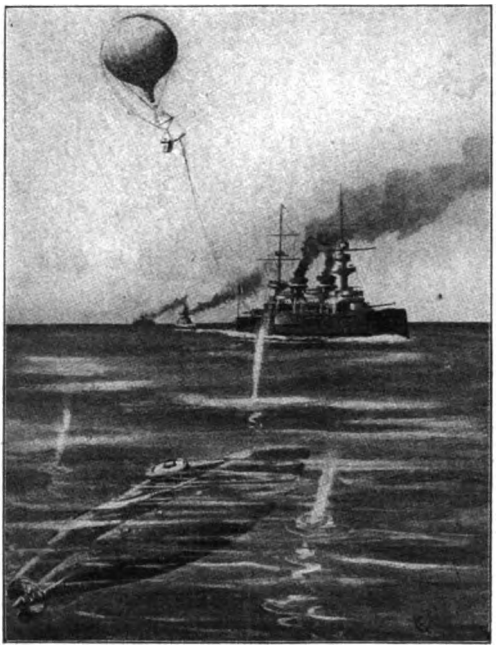


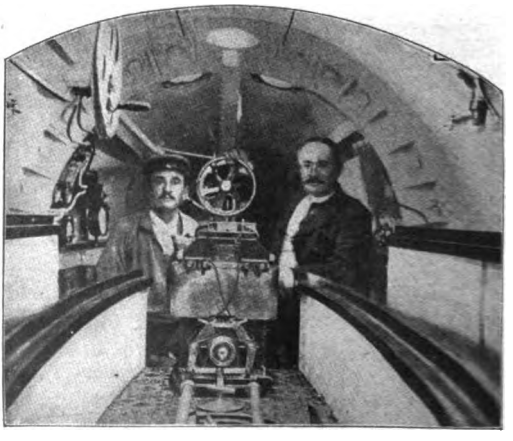
THE FRENCH PLAN TO DETECT AN APPROACHING SUBMARINE FROM A CAPTIVE BALLOON.

lower part of the hull and filling them with water ballast, at the same time directing the vessel's course downward by a horizontal rudder. Nine tons of water will cause the boat to sink and run five feet below the surface. Still more water ballast can be taken on to cause her to sink a depth of 140 feet. The *Holland* boat is capable of making a speed of ten knots an hour when sailing "awash," or with only her conning tower above water. Her speed beneath the surface is eight knots. In a calm sea it is estimated that the tiny gray speck of the submarine boat's conning tower cannot be detected by powerful marine glasses more than a mile. In a rough sea the tower will hardly be visible at more than a few hundred yards.

The danger of the submarine boat's being hit by an enemy's guns is very small, as the little conning tower is only 2½ feet in diameter. But precaution is taken to protect it by four-inch plates, which will resist the fire of four-inch projectiles. The big cruiser, *New York,* the flagship of the North Atlantic squadron, could have been sunk as she lay at anchor in the waters of Narragansett Bay from a torpedo fired at her by the submarine boat *Holland.* Not only would the *New York* have suffered, but the tug *Leyden* would have gone to the bottom, too. But it was all practice, a night attack, and it was most successful, proving that the *Holland* boat is a most valuable part of the United States navy.

After dark, the torpedo boats *Morris* and *Rodgers* and the *Holland* were sent outside the breakwater, soon to be followed by the *Leyden,* the last named taking up a position at the entrance of the harbor. As the others made an attack an attempt was made by the *Leyden* to pick them out with searchlights. So far as the torpedo boats were concerned it was successful, as they were found at will; but with the *Holland* it was a different matter, and after she had plunged under the water she was not seen again until she was found at her dock when the *Leyden* went in.

The crew of the *Holland* say that the deck of the wonderful craft was dry all the time they were under the water. The *Holland* approached near enough to the *Leyden* to fire a torpedo and then turned, crossed the bay, and went within a short distance of the *New York* without detection. The boat was operated by a full naval crew in charge of Lieut. Caldwell. Naval officers are more than pleased with her performance. The United States government has ordered five more of these boats, and when in commission the *Shark, Adder, Moccasin, Porpoise,* and *Grampus* will form a coast defense of a most formidable type, and a new element in naval warfare will have been introduced



INSIDE ONE OF THE LATEST GOUBET FRENCH SUBMARINES.

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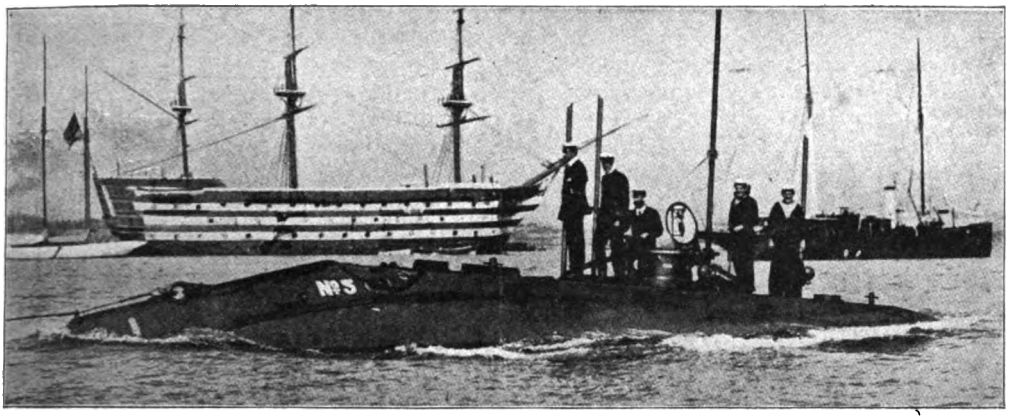

ONE OF THE NEW BRITISH SUBMARINES ENTERING PORTSMOUTH HARBOR.

which will radically change naval tactics.

The records of the French submarines *Gustave Zede* and *Morse* in sailing from Toulon and Cherbourg and successfully "torpedoing" the battleship *Charles Martel* and cruiser *Coyote,* at stations hundreds of miles away, have aroused international interest to a point where all the greater powers are jealously watching the development of this class of vessel and ordering many for experiment. France leads in numbers, now rushing a flotilla of forty to completion. The United States will have six shortly.

The inventor stated in a lecture that the submarine torpedo boat will be so formidable a weapon that the only avoidance of its destructive force will be for seaport nations never to make war at all. He expects to see in ten years submarine boats engaged in regular passenger traffic, holding that the freedom from the discomfort of surface-sailing will quickly dispel the natural fear of submergence. The adoption of the American type of boat by the Admiralty indicates official sanction to the fraternal tie between English and American "Jackies" which has been emphasized by the "blood is thicker than water" episode at Peiho, in 1859, the cheer of the sinking U. S. S. *Trenton's* crew for H. M. S. *Calliope* during the hurricane at Samoa, 1889, Admiral Chichester's attitude toward the Germans after the battle of Manila, and the Isthmian Treaty of to-day.

That the new "Assassin of the Sea" will change the naval campaigns of the future is admitted by students, and it is hoped that Mr. Holland's prediction of forcing peace through terror will succeed better than the Conference at The Hague. The wits of inventors will be set to work devising methods of detecting the approach of the submarine terror before it comes in contact with the battleship.

TAMMANY UNDER A NEW CHIEF.—New Yorkers are in the same attitude of mind toward Mayor Low and his excellent administration as were the Athenians toward Aristides—they are tired of hearing him called "The Just." The reign of Croker is a thing of the past; he has been superseded in the leadership of Tammany by a saloon politician, Charles F. Murphy, who expects to put Tammany in control of New York City at the next election. This expectation is justified by the present state of local public opinion, for New York political conditions are settling back into the old rut. Never since Tammany became a power in New York politics could that city endure more than two consecutive years of reform rule. Now the customary reaction is setting in. There is no denying the fact that, on the whole, Gotham likes the Tammany rule, corrupt as it has always been, better than a strong, clean administration such as Mayor Low has given. Much as Gotham boasts of its culture and civilization, it cannot live up to the political ideals of a university president. They impose too much restraint. The gayety that accompanies the indulgent administration of a saloon politician suits the Gothamites better.

Enemies of Mayor Seth Low may charge him with lack of tact. It were

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more just to say that he is not a good tactician. He has none of the qualities of a good politician. He seems to have gone on the theory that a thorough performance of duty would be sufficient. He has done wonders for Greater New York and has given the metropolis one of the best governments it has ever had. He has kept all his campaign promises. Good men have been appointed in nearly every instance. Mayor Low has shaken up the police force and rendered it approximately honest and decent. The sale of promotions for cash has been stopped. He has pushed with tremendous energy rapid transit and public works. Mayor Low and Jerome have closed up the dives and dance halls and suppressed gambling. They have carried on a successful crusade against the policy shops and sent the policy king to Sing Sing.

There are hosts of reasons why Seth Low should have a second term, and he is ambitious to go on with his great work. But after all is said, the fact remains that New York is a Democratic city. The Liquor Dealers' Association, which Mayor Low has snubbed, is a powerful element in the party and the New York City Democrats are 60,000 strong. Moreover, Mayor Low, by his methods, has not satisfied the Republican machine and the Prohibitionists. Of course his fusion friends, the better elements, will rally around him in the next campaign, but they cannot command the votes they did two years ago.

In connection with this popular revulsion of feeling toward the new order of things, Tammany is playing a very clever game. It promises not to let any of the old abuses return if it is restored to power, and points to its repudiation of Croker and Devery as a pledge of its sincerity. Charles F. Murphy, the new head of the society, is a powerful leader and organizer. Already he is strong enough to command the treasurer of Tammany to make no reports to anybody but the new chief. In fact, as chairman of the executive committee, Murphy has absolute control of the funds and, under the new rules, appoints the treasurer. He has recently selected his most intimate personal friend and next-door neighbor, who makes assessments and disburses money upon Murphy's sole authority. Murphy is responsible to nobody. No member of the Tammany Society has the right to question the acts or authority of the chairman of the executive committee. The chairman can exclude from that committee any member that is offensive to him. Never before, in any American political organization, has power been so thoroughly centralized.

Charles Francis Murphy is forty-four years old, and has passed his whole life in what is known as the Gashouse district, or the Eighteenth Assembly District of the City of New York. Murphy worked as driver of a cross-town street-car, and by rigid economy saved enough money to purchase a small saloon on Nineteenth street, in 1879. He kept the place in an orderly manner and gave no trouble to the police.

As soon as Murphy was firmly established here, he organized a political club which became a power in local politics. Gradually Murphy acquired other saloons in various parts of his ward, out of which he made much wealth. In 1892, Murphy became Tammany leader of the eighteenth district, on the death of Edward Hagan. In recognition of Murphy's ability Croker pushed him rapidly forward, and appointed him dock commissioner when Van Wyck was elected mayor. At that time his wealth was estimated at $350,000. Now he is ranked as a millionaire and one of the fifteen plutocrat leaders of Tammany. He is charged with making a large sum of money out of the ice monopoly that Croker organized, and by manipulating the rentals of the city docks.

When Croker retired from the leadership of Tammany and went to Europe, he left in control a triumvirate, consisting of Mr. Haffen, Mr. McMahon, and Mr. Murphy. This division was unsuccessful, and when it was dissolved, in September, 1902, the strongest of the three, Murphy, remained, by common consent, the nominal head of society. He assumed command without ostentation, as if his leadership were only temporary. Nevertheless, he worked with quiet diligence, extending his influence in every direction until he became master of the situation. At the annual meeting in January, 1903, he was elected chairman of the executive committee, that being the title of the leader of the Tammany Society. Murphy bids fair to wield more power than did Croker.

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THE FLOOD AT KANSAS CITY.
Looking southward from the depot at 12th and Allen streets. Freight shed in foreground on fire.
(Courtesy "Chicago American.")

THE WORLD'S EVENTS.

(From May 15 to June 15, 1903.)

UNITED STATES.

May 16.—A private meeting of 700 employers in the building trades of New York was held in that city to secure united resistance to the demands of labor unions. A statement was given out that the chief issue was whether irresponsible leaders of men are to be permitted to conduct the business of the employer....The Chicago Board of Arbitration rendered the most remarkable decision in its history, which will serve as a warning to meddlesome labor agitators. The board is composed half of labor leaders, to whom great credit is due for impartial judgment. Its decision severely censures certain labor organizers for the calling and conduct of the recent strike against the Chicago Gas Co., and especially for their incendiary language; also for making threats opposed to the city's welfare and to organized labor

May 21.—According to estimates based upon a canvass for its new directory, the population of Chicago is now over 2,200,000, which shows an increase of 62,000 over the population as estimated in the same manner last year. Yet more astonishing has been the increase in the savings of the people, presumably many of them wage-earners, as shown by bank savings. Whereas savings deposits in Chicago banks amounted to less than $16,000,000 in 1893 and had reached $18,000,000 in May, 1902, they have increased to $22,000,000 since that date. Besides the general prosperity, unusual bank activity has favored saving. Six new banks, three of which do only a savings business in localities previously unfurnished, secured $4,000,000 of the total gain; and the introduction of the steel bank has started many toward thrift.

May 23.—The executive committee of the National Association of Manufacturers met in New York, with President D. M. Parry in the chair, and appointed sub-committees to unionize employers all over the country. After the meeting adjourned Mr. Parry said: "Neither the labor agitators, the 'proletariats,' the ecclesiasts, those who are seeking to arrange arbitration meetings, nor the press have any idea of the tremendous movement that is under way among all classes of employers all over this country. Without regard to politics, religions or petty rivalries, the men who have their money and their interests centered in manufactures of every description have reached the conclusion that they must act as a unit in a great national movement insuring them the control of their own capital. They have cheerfully granted shorter

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SAMUEL W. PENNYPACKER.
Governor of Pennsylvania, whose anti-cartoon law has aroused the indignation of the press of the country.

hours and higher wages, but they will not yield the right to decide how they are to conduct their own business."

May 24.—There are in New York 165,000 men unemployed because of strikes, lockouts, and dissensions among rival labor unions. These would earn, on an average of $3 a day, a total of $3,000,000 a week, while 2,500 large firms with a capitalization of $550,000,000 are at a standstill. Most of the unions are idle because of other unions or because of sympathetic lockouts, in accord with the recent decision of employers to stand together....Whereas there were 27,000 owners of real estate in New York (borough of Manhattan and the Bronx) eight years ago, there are now only 19,000. Syndicates, banks, and insurance companies are becoming the great landlords of the city....The Woman's Educational Society of Boston will open a training school for housemaids, to be hired by the hour or day, always returning to their homes at night. Wages will be graded, and efficiency and honesty guaranteed.

May 25.—Curtis Jett and Thomas White are indicted by a grand jury at Jackson, Ky., for the murder of J. B. Marcum, who was slain in the Hargis-Cockrill feud. A guard of the State militia, with a gatling gun, protected the grand jury during its deliberations.

May 26.—Dr. S. A. Mathews of Chicago has discovered a cure for lockjaw in the shape of a compound of calcium chloride, with several sodiums, applied through copious hypodermic injections. Uræmia and morphine poisoning are likewise amenable to the new remedy.

May 28.—Mr. Jerome, district attorney in New York, stated that, under present conditions in New York, it was well-nigh impossible to convict a man of a commercial crime. The law has become a magnificently constructed machine to protect the guilty, and no criminal judge in New York would have been placed there by the lawyers of the city. Here, as elsewhere, an elected judiciary depreciates in integrity....At the convention of the Brotherhood of Railway Trainmen, held in Denver, cheering for five minutes greeted the statement of Grand Master Morrissey that "We shall see the time when we shall regard the contract breaker, whether member or non-member, as we do the scab." ....An attack on the jail at Jackson, Ky., in which Jett and White are confined, was repulsed by the militia.

May 30.—Exceptional rainfall so swelled the Kaw and Missouri rivers that floods in their basins break all records since 1844. Topeka lost 34 lives and $2,000,000 in property; Kansas City 100 lives and $10,000,000 in property. Des Moines 23 lives and $1,500,000 in property. Flood relief appropriation by Kansas Legislature suggested.

May 31.—Mr. J. D. Rockefeller attributes his greatly improved health to golf exercise....An official estimate reports 860 persons killed in the earthquake in the Van district of Asiatic Turkey.

June 1.—About 90,000 textile operatives of Philadelphia strike for fewer hours of labor and increase of wages. About 15,000 remain at work in mills that have granted the demands. The dyers control the situation because their work is particularly skilled. They demand a 55-hour week for $13. The daily loss in wages amounts to $125,000....At a meeting of the board of trustees of Leland Stanford, Jr., University, Mrs. Leland Stanford surrendered to the board of trustees all the powers and duties invested in her by the terms of the grant founding the university. Mrs. Stanford will, however, be elected a trustee, and when certain legal matters have been adjusted will be elected president....A tornado killed nearly 200 people, within a period of two minutes, in passing over the suburbs of Gainesville and New Holland in Georgia.

June 2.—Judge M. F. Tuley, who received the highest number of votes but one in the election of judges for Chicago on June 1, attributes the distribution of suffrages to the power of the independent press.

June 4.—Blacksmiths' Local Union No. 14 of Chicago, with nearly 600 members, has been suspended by President Slocum and Vice-President P. H. Cummins of the International Brotherhood of Blacksmiths, because the local union broke its agreement with the Chicago Metal Trades Association by a sympathetic strike with the Blacksmiths' Helpers' Union No. 9. The decree was given after careful investigation on the spot in which the men concerned were afforded opportunity to defend themselves. Vice-President P. H. Cummins said: "By revoking that charter we established a precedent in Chicago which may not be popular with those involved, but it is an action which meets the approval and will benefit the general labor movement and will prevent the repetition of breaking contracts in the future, not alone in our craft but in all others. I believe the moral effect will be greater than one can calculate, and will inspire confidence of employers in the stability of labor unions." The members of both the blacksmiths' and the helpers' unions returned to work (June 4) of their own voli-

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tion, and later on the same day committees of the helpers' union and the employers' association made a new agreement....The ten per cent. of the St. Louis teamsters who did not return to work in obedience to the order of President Albert Young on June 2 were suspended from membership in the union. The order to return was based upon the charge that the teamsters had broken contract by their sympathetic strike.

June 3.—The Sunderland Brothers' Company of Omaha was forced by a writ of replevin to sell lime and cement for use by union workmen.

June 4.—The election at Chicago of the directorate of the Chicago and Northwestern Railway showed that the road was controlled by the Vanderbilts whose holdings have increased materially during the past year. The balanced account showed that dividends had been paid at the rate of 8 per cent. on preferred and 7 per cent. on common stock....Stockholders of the Canada Southern Railway leased their road for a period of 999 years to the Michigan Central Railway, on a guarantee of 2½ per cent. dividends until 1910 and 3 per cent. thereafter. The Vanderbilts showed control of about two-thirds of the Canada Southern stock in this transaction.

June 7.—A mighty cloudburst in Polk county, North Carolina, causes a property loss of $3,000,000; while fifty persons drowned by the flood in the Pacolet River.

June 8.—New low levels were reached by several railroad stocks in Wall Street, owing to renewed liquidation.

June 10.—The rising waters of the Mississippi broke through the Illinois Central Railroad embankment and submerged East St. Louis, driving 5,000 people from their homes; more than 30 lives are reported lost; property loss is enormous.

June 11.—Since January last when most railway and industrial stocks listed on the New York Stock Exchange reached their maximum value they have decreased a total of about one billion dollars. To this must be added the sympathetic decline in local stocks, as also that in bonds. Lord Rothschild of London attributes the liquidation to the need for capital by American undertakings in Great Britain.

June 14.—A flood originating from a cloudburst engulfed the residence part of Heppner in northeastern Oregon, drowned about 500 people, and destroyed over $1,000,000 worth of property.

CANADA.

June 2.—The banking firm of A. E. Ames & Co. of Toronto failed for a large sum, owing to the recent decline in a number of Canadian and American securities.

EUROPE.

May 13.—Announcement was made at the Berlin Medical Society of a new cure for consumption called sanosin, discovered by Mr. Robert Schneider. He will spend the months of June, July, and August at the new St. Ann's consumptive hospital in Chicago.

May 15.—British Colonial Secretary Chamberlain in a speech at Birmingham objected to artificial and narrow interpretations of free trade, such as endangered the unity of Great Britain and her colonies.

May 16.—Mr. Henniker Heaton, M. P., just returned to London from Rome, reports an invention by Mr. Marconi by means of which photographs can be taken of objects 25 miles distant as though they were but 20 yards away. The prints are called radiographs.

May 25.—Mr. Marcus Braun, a U. S. emigrant inspector, finds that, though the Austrian government is endeavoring to restrict depletion of its country youth by emigration to the U. S., various motives will cause its continuation.

SELIM H. PEABODY.

Mathematician, linguist and astronomer, who died May 26. He was president of the University of Illinois for eleven years and chief of the Liberal Arts Department of the Columbian Exposition.

Austrians already in America encourage others to come to enjoy the superior conditions there, and unfit emigrants are prepared by unscrupulous agents to evade the laws of both Austria and the United States.

May 28.—Mr. Joseph Chamberlain, speaking in the British House of Commons, advocated a preferential tariff, in order to secure closer fiscal relations between Great Britain and her colonies as a prerequisite to closer political relations. Great Britain should give preference to her colonies' food products, the higher cost of which the working man could meet with his rising wage. The worker would, moreover, see the proceeds of the tariff return to himself in old age pensions or other social

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reform. Premier Balfour expressed approval of this Zollverein, saying that Great Britain was the only free trade country in the world, and that a continuation of prevailing tendencies would render her helpless to dispose of her products; whereas, if preference were given to imports from the colonies, they in turn would diminish their present tariffs against the motherland....The Jews of Odessa in Russia have armed themselves with revolvers and organized a defense committee with an aggressive section.

June 3.—Australia approves Secretary Chamberlain's proposal for a British Imperial Zollverein, but all British trade-union leaders and the influential cooperative congress have condemned it.

June 11.—King Alexander I of Servia, Queen Draga, and her two brothers were slain by army officers as result of a conspiracy of the army and people against the vicious dynasty of Obrenovitch. Two hours later four cabinet ministers and some of the royal guard were furthermore dispatched to insure success.

June 12.—The French Senate passed a bill reducing the term of military training to two years. Under the Empire the term was seven years; but under the Republic, first five years, then three years, and now two.

June 15.—Prince Peter Karageorgevitch was unanimously elected king of Servia by the Senate and Skupshtina in joint session.

ASIA.

May 23.—News comes that Wu Ting Fang, late Chinese minister to the U. S. and now member of a board of commerce in Shanghai, made an approving speech before a society for abolishing foot-binding and conveyed to it a contribution of one hundred dollars from Mrs. Wu, who had keenly felt her own limitations when in America. China moves at last.

June 4.—News reaches Victoria, B. C., that 150,000 Chinese are utterly destitute in Kwangsi Province. Children to the extent of 10,000 and even wives have been sold to obtain money for food.

AFRICA.

May 20.—The first British Transvaal parliament was opened in Pretoria by Sir Arthur Lawley, the lieutenant governor of the Transvaal. In welcoming the new and enlarged legislative council he said the government had done its best to obtain a representative body without having recourse to a popular election, which in these times would only create political and racial strife. He reviewed the work accomplished, and promised so far as possible to meet local sentiment in regard to education, saying the government recognized the rising generation as an asset to be developed to the highest degree. Provision would be made to teach the Dutch language, in accordance with both the spirit and the letter of the peace terms. Boers were conspicuously absent from the assemblage.

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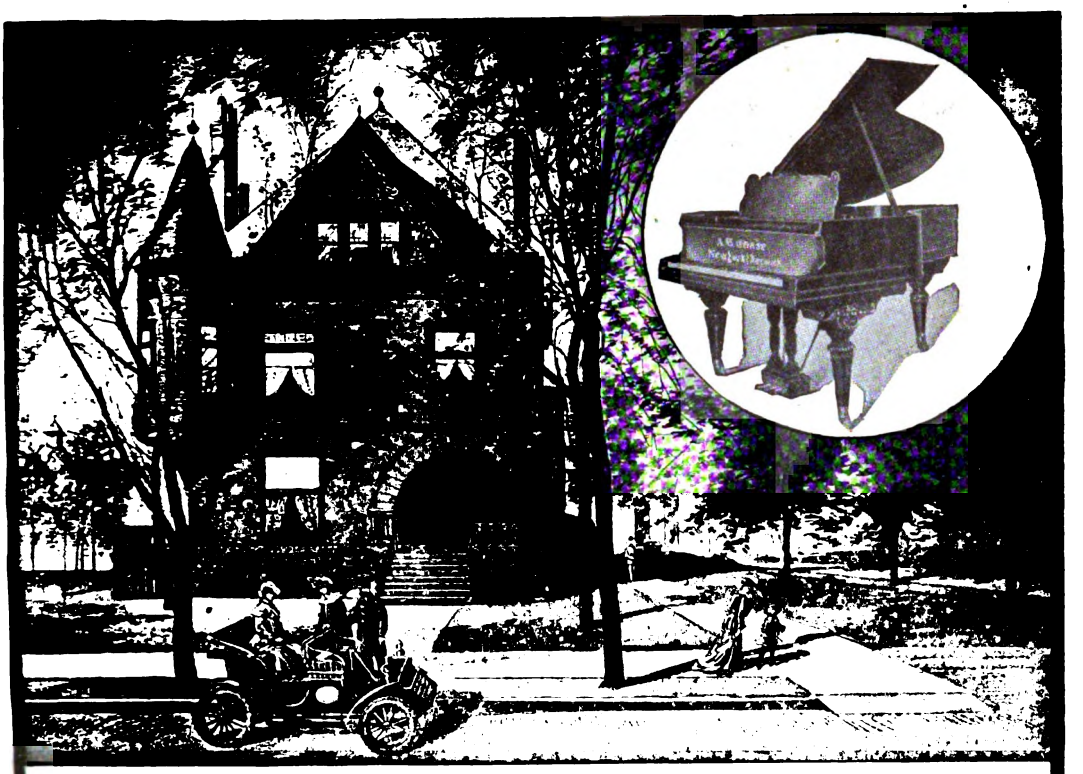

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THE WORLD TO-DAY is issued on the first of every month and contains a complete encyclopedic record of the world's progress for the preceding thirty days. Each number is arranged alphabetically and contains a cumulative index.

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OLD AND NEW BUILDINGS ON BOWLING GREEN, NEW YORK.
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WATERFRONT OF NEW YORK AT STATEN ISLAND FERRY.
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SKYSCRAPER OFFICE BUILDINGS IN NEW YORK.

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BARON VON RHEINBABEN, GERMAN MINISTER OF FINANCE, WHO IS NOW TOURING THIS COUNTRY.
This photograph was taken during his visit to the Baldwin Locomotive Works at Philadelphia. The Baron stands in the center, wearing striped suit. The man pointing is Mr. Johnson, of the Baldwin Company. The Baron is but 45 years old, but is an authority on finance.

FISHING FOR SHAD ON THE DELAWARE.
Pulling in the mile-long net.

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A SPOT VISITED BY MANY TOURISTS DURING THE SUMMER MONTHS.
Spray Valley from Tunnel mountain, Alberta, Canada.

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The World To-Day

VOLUME V. AUGUST, 1903. NUMBER 2.

EVENTS OF THE MONTH.

BY CHARLES H. DENNIS.

Are We a Lawless People?

Last month the American people celebrated the 127th anniversary of the signing of the Declaration of Independence. With their marvelous growth of population, territory, wealth and power they have come to occupy a position where they have nothing to fear but themselves. A little self-analysis now and then will do nobody any harm. Since we rejoice so much in being free and powerful it is well that we should pay some attention also to our shortcomings. The most serious of these is the facility with which we break our own laws. This is to be seen in the shocking misgovernment of our cities, the venality of our state legislatures, the harmful conspiracies which manifest themselves in the business world, the violence of striking workmen and the injuries inflicted by them upon nonunion wage earners, the feuds that turn entire communities into nests of assassins and the lynchings so frequently perpetrated by mobs. These are the kinds of lawlessness which are most commonly mentioned as showing how feeble is the hand of justice as compared with the clutch of wrong. Bringing our courts into contempt is the crowning evil of our lawless methods, since that levels us downward in the direction of savagery. Why do we not make a better use of our freedom than to work injustice with it? If our institutions are tainted with crime why should we boast of our progress? Material wealth coupled with moral squalor is simply revolting. We Americans should start a general crusade against the forms of lawlessness which we now tolerate in many instances.

Evils of Our Courts.

Where should we begin? With our courts of law. The indifference of our judges, the ineffectiveness of our jury system, the evil methods of lawyers and other court officers—these breed anarchy. Our courts very often do not punish crime either with reasonable promptness or with a fair degree of certainty. Technicalities and forced constructions, new trials and interminable delays protect the wrongdoer and embolden others to follow in his footsteps. Because of the methods which so often render court trials a farce crime is bold and violent men in many communities administer what they are pleased to call justice with the rope and the torch as if they were red Indians. Our system of local self-government makes of justice a neighborhood affair almost exclusively, except when federal laws are violated. When a community chooses to burn a negro at the stake in the presence of a multitude of witnesses it snaps its fingers at the officers of justice and the hideous crime goes unpunished. Why does not the court having jurisdiction there punish that crime? Why should not that court be brought into contempt if it does not possess sufficient vitality to compel respect for itself? Even the so-called

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"wild justice" of the rope and the fagot is better than hesitating and uncertain action by a court after long delay when the safety of womankind is at stake. We are, in short, a lawless people to the extent in which lawlessness is inspired in us by the uncertainties of our courts. They are too often paralytic, confused, dilatory, wavering. From them do not come in a sufficient degree the influences that are awakened by prompt and vigorous action when crime is to be punished. It is within the power of the courts to crush out American lawlessness. From lowest to highest they should labor more earnestly than they have labored in the past to put down evil practices, to command the respect and confidence of the masses. Prosecution and defense have become games of skill rather than determined efforts to protect innocence and punish guilt. The refinements of court practice have almost smothered out the essential elements of prompt and unwavering justice. In justice it should be added that sheriffs and other public officials who fear to injure their popularity by sternly repressing disorder, and repelling mobs are also much to blame for criminal outbreaks.

Lessons of a Lynching. Soon after midnight on the morning of June 23 George White, a negro, confined in the workhouse at Wilmington, Del., charged with having outraged and murdered a young white girl, was taken from his cell by a mob after a battle with the guards and burned at the stake. For the first time in thirty-eight years Delaware was dishonored by a lynching. The crime of which the negro was guilty was most horrible. The attorney general of the state had asked the court to give him a speedy trial. The reply had been that the trial would be postponed until September, the judge believing that popular excitement was then too great to permit of absolute fairness in the hearing. The indignation caused by the act of the court led to two remarkable incidents preceding the lynching. The father of the murdered girl, a minister of the gospel, wrote a public letter urging the people to let the law take its course. "Let us not try to atone for one crime, no matter how hellish," he said, "by committing another." About the same time the pastor of a church in Wilmington preached a sermon denouncing the action of the court in postponing the trial of the miscreant. If he should be taken out and lynched, declared the minister, the responsibility would rest upon the judges who had denied speedy justice to the murderer. On the night succeeding this sermon the man was lynched. Was not the court in a measure responsible? Humanity errs continually, and yet its horror of the crime of which the negro was guilty led the mob to feel that it should dishonor womanhood if it permitted him to live for months after he had performed so fiendish an act. The mob did wrong; but the court also did wrong.

Facts About Mob Law. Action by a court is the deliberate and orderly action of the people who established the court. Its existence is an admission that the disorderly and passionate deeds of mobs reek with error and injustice. But courts must justify their existence or it becomes the part of good citizenship to reform them or brush them aside altogether. The Rev. Dr. Bartlett, of the First Congregational Church of Chicago, in a sermon preached a few days after the Wilmington mob burned the negro murderer, declared that "the indignant uprising of a community and some of the best men in it, to avenge a wrong of such awful magnitude, may be technically lawless, but the spirit which causes the uprising is the reflection of a higher civilization." Following up this startling declaration he said: "There are crimes so dreadful that the pure and the chivalrous and the strong find it well-nigh impossible to endure the thought that such a degenerate should pollute the earth by his presence." This sort of talk from the pulpit will not do. Mobs are mobs, whether chivalrous and pure or otherwise. Furthermore, the mob spirit spreads like a plague. The wind carries it; rumor on the lips of excited and irresponsible men serves as a death sentence upon some suspected person and his executioners drag him to his death, not knowing whether he be innocent or guilty. Mob murder shrivels the souls of whole communities. It does not purify; it de-

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bauches and brutalizes. Apologists for lynchers forget that the victim of the criminal and the victim of the mob are by no means the only sufferers. During the month of June there were many lynchings in various parts of the country. That of a negro school-teacher at Belleville, Ill., on June 6 for shooting the county superintendent of schools attracted wide attention, because it was a northern community which degraded itself by committing mob murder. Doubtless the many lynchings that followed were in part at least suggested by the Belleville affair. Every successful outbreak of mob violence weakens over wide areas the respect for law upon which rests the whole fabric of justice. On July 6 a mob at Evansville, Ind., attempted to storm the jail in search of a negro who had killed a policeman. Militiamen and deputy sheriffs fired upon it as a last resort, killing and wounding many persons. Such a reception was well calculated to quell the rising tide of lawlessness which the pusillanimity of the Belleville officials did so much to encourage.

Questions of Race Prejudice. One part of the sermon of the Rev. Dr. Bartlett from which we have already quoted is especially worthy of the careful attention of students of this subject. Such crimes as that for which the murderer White was burned at Wilmington, together with the indifference of the courts to demands for speedy justice, unquestionably put an almost unendurable strain upon human patience. Outraging of white women and girls by negroes is not uncommon. "One sure cure for lynching," in the words of Dr. Bartlett, "is for these lustful beasts to stop their crimes." Lynching will not stop such crimes altogether; one may doubt whether it is particularly efficacious as a deterrent. But the horror and the fury so aroused are far more to the credit of the public than would be indifference, or even mere lack of strong feeling. Meetings of representative negroes in various parts of the country have considered lynchings of late, many negroes speaking with great bitterness of the race prejudice manifested by those crimes. Yet something more than race prejudice causes lynchings. The attack of a negro on a white woman, when such an outrage occurs, is a terrible fact from which there is no escape. It cannot be explained away or rendered less terrible, no matter what line of argument is taken. So long as such attacks occur one must doubt whether lynchings will absolutely cease. Certainly they will not cease unless the courts realize their duty more clearly than did the court at Wilmington when it postponed the trial of White for four months. During 1902 there were ninety-six lynchings in the United States, the victims being eighty-six negroes, nine white men and one Indian. This indicates that race prejudice had a considerable share in choosing the persons to suffer from mob violence. Lynching, in short, is a white man's crime, and due either to violent emotion or to arrogant contempt for the victim.

Lynchers and Feud Fighters. In his interesting volumes on "The Scotch-Irish" Charles A. Hanna gives accounts of two butcheries of considerable numbers of Indians by early settlers of Pennsylvania who had arrived from the north of Ireland. At Conestoga, Dec. 27, 1763, occurred what is said to have been the first lynching by white men on American soil, fourteen Indians being taken from jail by a mob and shot. "It was a protest," says Mr. Hanna, "bloody and atrocious, it is true, made by the harrassed frontiersmen against the cowardly policy of the Quaker government." The Rev. John Elder, the leading spirit among the settlers who committed this atrocity, wrote to Governor Penn the same day: "I expostulated, but life and reason were set at defiance, and yet the men in private life were virtuous and respectable—not cruel, but mild and merciful." He sets down the lynching as "one of those youthful ebullitions of wrath caused by momentary excitement, to which human infirmity is subjected." Modern apologists for lynchings use very similar language. Mr. Hanna believes that the tendency to avenge real or supposed wrongs by lawless means is an inheritance from the ancient Scottish clan feuds. He says: "This atavistic tendency is further illustrated in our day by the lynching of negroes in the South, the frequency of which is probably due to the fact that the southern white popu-

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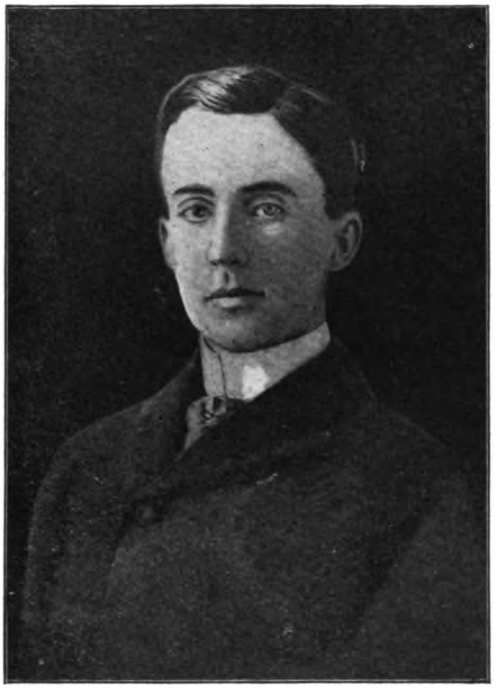
lation is chiefly of Scotch-Irish descent; these examples of perverted administration of justice finding many parallels in the annals of mediæval Scotland. The family feuds of Kentucky, which for the most part seem peculiar to families bearing Scottish names, may also be cited as examples and counterparts in America of the clan and family feuds formerly so common in Scotland." Since this persistent eulogist of the Scotch-Irish accepts for them the odium of having added to our civilization the lyncher and the feud fighter, his view of the matter at least is



JOHN C. W. BECKHAM.
Governor of Kentucky.

worth considering. Tending as it does to trace the origin of lynchings and feuds to the same source, it throws additional light upon those forms of savagery. Each is a blood thirst, the difference being that in one case a victim is hunted down by overwhelming numbers, while in the other case a community ranges itself into two factions equally bloodthirsty and determined. If, therefore, one finds excuses for lynchings, why not find excuses for feuds? If the feud fighter shoots his victim in the back, the lyncher hunts in packs and therefore at little risk to himself.

Affairs in Breathitt County.

After a trial full of extraordinary incidents the jury in the case of Curtis Jett and Tom White, charged with the assassination of James B. Marcum some weeks ago at the courthouse door in Jackson, Ky., ended June 19 in a disagreement by the jury. The fact that eleven of the twelve jurymen voted for the conviction of Jett proves that there are some honest and courageous men left in Breathitt county. Judge Redwine, who insisted on trying the case in the very hotbed of murder instead of transferring it to some other locality, has sent it for a second trial to Cynthiana, in Harrison county, the prisoners in the meantime being confined in the Lexington jail. The trial at Jackson was held under a guard of state troops and the principal witness, Captain B. J. Ewen, was given protection in the soldiers' camp. Persons attending the trial were searched for concealed weapons before they were permitted to enter the courtroom. While the hearing was in progress, notwithstanding the vigilance of the troops, Witness Ewen's hotel was burned to the ground by incendiaries. County Judge Hargis, uncle of Jett and one of the principals in the Hargis-Cockrill feud, which has cost so many lives, and Sheriff Callahan, one of his partisans, were the chief witnesses for the defense. The courage of Commonwealth Attorney Byrd in prosecuting the prisoners at the risk of his life and the heroism of Ewen in facing death and financial ruin in order to give his testimony aroused the people of Kentucky in a manner which bodes ill for those who commit further assassinations in Breathitt county. Governor Beckham was made uncomfortable by the accusation that he had been exceedingly free in pardoning criminals convicted by the courts. His retort that Republican murderers killed his predecessor, Governor Goebel, and that the Republican Governor Bradley pardoned many criminals hardly suffices to excuse his own exploits in the pardoning line. Public sentiment in Kentucky has been so thoroughly aroused to the shame of the state's assassinations that a movement to abolish Breathitt county may be successfully carried out if further murders occur there. Public sentiment may not effect the law's delay, but it hastens justice.

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MEXICAN PEON TAPPING A RUBBER TREE.
Peonage prevails in Mexico, Guatemala, and in some countries of South America, as well as in the United States.

Peonage in the South.

Startling disclosures in regard to the forcing of negroes into a sort of slavery have been made in Georgia and Alabama. Conditions such as have prevailed there are said to exist also in various other parts of the cotton growing country. Negroes charged with some offense, petty or other, are brought into court, fined or placed under bonds and then turned over to private taskmasters. Often, it is asserted, the charges against them are false, being trumped up by a class of persons called "crime hunters." Even if a negro is acquitted of the charge against him, very likely he finds himself hopelessly in debt to some lawyer for defending him. In such cases the laws of Georgia and Alabama, and probably of other states, permit the purchase of the negro's services by some planter or proprietor of a private convict camp. Thus, the friendless and penniless unfortunate is delivered into bondage, frequently being held for years in that condition. The lash and other brutal punishments are freely inflicted upon him. To those who thought slavery was abolished forty years ago these shocking revelations furnish a bitter awakening to actual conditions. Two United States judges, one sitting at Montgomery, Ala., and the other at Macon, Ga., have taken up vigorously this shocking violation of the constitution. Judge T. J. Jones of Alabama has sentenced several planters to terms of imprisonment for enslaving negroes, and Judge Emory Speer of Georgia has attacked the evil in that state with equal determination. A typical case of peonage came to light recently at Waycross, Ga., where Lula Frazier, a colored woman living with her husband and young son, was accused of bigamy by a professional "crime hunter." After spending three weeks in jail she was tried and acquitted. However, as she could not pay a lawyer's fee of $50

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she was delivered by the authorities to one McRee, proprietor of a private convict camp, who was given her labor for fourteen months on payment of the fee. When she was rescued from the camp nine months later as a result of a grand jury investigation, she testified that she had been beaten with a leather strap, had been compelled to accept a negro as her husband against her will and had been forced to deliver her eight-year-old son to McRee to work for him. The fact that state laws countenance such outrages and that they are numerous in various parts of the South shows how necessary it is that the federal courts probe the matter to the bottom.

Lawlessness in Labor Matters. The great movement among trades unionists to readjust the relations existing between them and their employers has made considerable progress of late. An important feature of the recent disputes has been the effort put forward by the conservative labor unions to force those strikers whose demands were clearly unreasonable to modify their demands. Other labor organizations, for example, did much to induce the striking cooks and waiters in Chicago to recede from their position that employers must surrender to them individually and unconditionally. However, they would only listen to reason when defeat already stared them in the face. Direct accusations of attempts to extort bribes for the settlement of the strike were made against one of the strike leaders. Charges of corrupt practices have figured also in the calling and settlement of a number of other strikes. In New York the arrest of Samuel Parks, business agent of the Housesmiths' and Bridgemen's Union, on various charges of accepting bribes in settlement of strikes, was the most conspicuous case of this sort. Another form of lawlessness found expression in cruel attacks by strikers upon nonunion workers. Persistent war was made for weeks upon men and women employed by the Kellogg Switchboard company of Chicago, brutal beatings being given to a number of the former. This strike, which did not result from a demand for higher wages or shorter hours, but from an attempt to secure the discharge of nonunion members of the factory force, is of a sort that has a peculiar interest for the public. In upholding the "open shop" principle employers really make a stand against entering into relations with their men which savor strongly of conspiracy. Those employers who agree to have their work done exclusively by trades unionists in probably a majority of cases require the latter to refuse to work for any individual or firm who is not a member of the employers' association. Thus a hard and fast monopoly is established on both sides and competition ceases. When people come to realize this they will see that the trust evil takes on one of its most grievous forms when capital makes trades unionism its ally, hoists the black flag of monopoly and demands exorbitant profits.

Strength of Right Principles. Evils which justify the phrase "American lawlessness" in a large measure result from the nation's intense activity. They are the scum that rises from the boiling pot. Nauseous and dangerous, foul and discreditable, the fact that they are cast to the surface is an indication that the public has within it the power to purify itself. Stagnation has not set in. We will not sink under abuses which we detest and against which we strive. Apathy and cynicism are not American vices. The conscience of the average citizen is robust. He is ready to uphold the right as he sees it. The duty of the press, of the pulpit and of public men to elevate the ideals of Americans is quite generally recognized by those agencies. Starved intellects that feed only on the husks of political prejudice and sectarian stupidity are allies of wrong because they invite deception and tolerate abuses that have plausible defenders. What Americans especially need is unselfish leadership. Admirable leaders there are, but they are far too few. To the educated, forceful man who has patriotism and lacks greed for wealth or power opportunities for work on behalf of right principles exist on every hand. That the present need is recognized and that the workers are volunteering in considerable numbers may be seen by any intelligent observer of the forces that make for progress among the

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masses, particularly in the great cities. There cannot be too many such workers, for the task is only well begun.

Postal Inquiry Continued. In a communication to Attorney General Knox on June 24, in which that officer was urged to employ additional counsel if that should be necessary in conducting energetically the prosecution of persons implicated in the postal frauds, President Roosevelt insisted that "every effort must be exerted to bring such offenders to punishment by the utmost rigor of the law." The investigations conducted by First Assistant Postmaster General Bristow, with the aid of his superiors, suffice to show that corrupt methods have been employed in the awarding of contracts by various officials and also that some congressmen have used their influence to secure profitable orders for firms in which they were interested. James T. Metcalf, chief of the money order division, was discharged June 17 because he had tried to induce the lowest bidder on a contract to withdraw his bid so that the award might go at an additional cost of $45,000 to a firm by which Metcalf's son was employed. Former Congressman E. H. Driggs of Brooklyn was indicted for bribery because while in Congress he received an annual fee of $12,500 from a cash register company which sought contracts with the government. The operations of other congressmen were also brought under close scrutiny. Disclosures as to unlawful appointments, the payment of double salaries and other grave abuses were numerous. It was found that two tons of postoffice box fasteners had been stored for the past fourteen years in the Milwaukee postoffice, they having been bought by A. W. Machen, former chief of the free delivery service, from the firm which is accused of paying him commissions of 40 per cent. on all its sales to the government. A Baltimore contractor testified that he sold mailbags to the government for 90 cents apiece which cost him 30 to 35 cents apiece, he having raised his bid from 60 cents at the suggestion of two postoffice inspectors, to whom he paid commissions on his sales. These sample disclosures will serve to show how corrupt were the methods of the various postal officials and how lax was the supervision exercised over the department. It is worthy of notice that much demoralization was wrought by political appointments. Perry S. Heath, assistant postmaster general during a considerable part of President McKinley's administration, was then, as now, secretary of the Republican National Committee. The many political abuses which he countenanced seem to have been in line with the work that was expected of him by the party managers when he was

PERRY HEATH.

placed in the position. In other words, the department was used to pay political debts. In a report on irregularities in the Washington postoffice, Chairman Proctor, of the Civil Service Commission, asserts that under Mr. Heath "most of the irregularities set forth were directed by the department or requested or suggested by high department officials, and in either case came to the postmaster with all the force of a direction." It must be hoped that the present scandal will suffice to stop the farming out of the postoffice department of the United States to party politicians.

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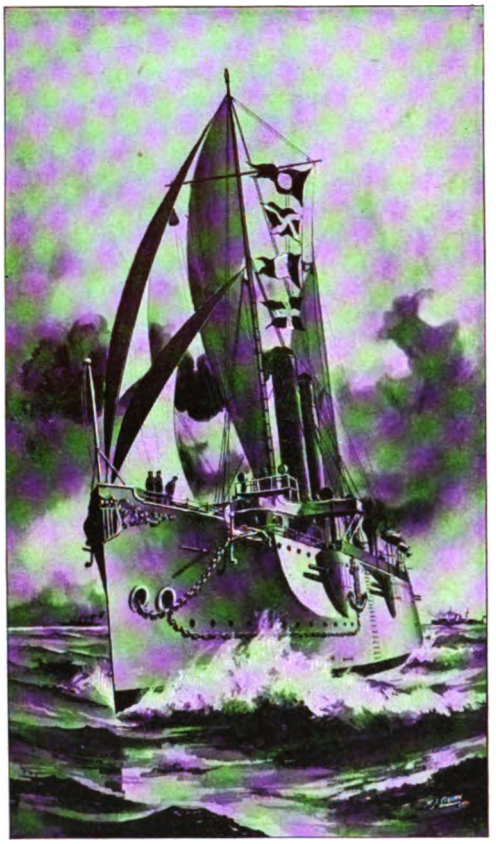

U. S. CRUISER "GALVESTON," AS IT WILL APPEAR WHEN LAUNCHED.

This cruiser caused friction between the Virginia State Court and the Government during the month and furnishes the first test case of the Government's right to seize warships in spite of injunctions.

In Praise of a Life Effort.

Very typical, not only of this time of iron materialism but of the spirituality which seeks to temper its crude ambitions, were some of the leading features of recent commencement exercises at American institutions of learning. Work, not only for the sake of achievement, but for the strengthening of mind and body and soul which comes from it, was urged upon the graduates by eminent college presidents. The world should be valued, declared President Hadley of Yale, not for what one can get out of it but for what one can put into it. Life is to be looked upon as a field of action, not as a means of securing comfort. Achievement is in itself great without regard to the amount of material benefit to be derived from it. Thus, the arctic explorer does not have to justify his striving by the amount of scientific information gathered near the pole, since his approach to that difficult spot in itself is glorious. "Doing makes the deed; unselfish doing makes the man." Money and office and other symbols of success, in the opinion of this wise educator, should be valued for the opportunities they give for doing good, it being despicable to think of them for themselves instead of the use that can be made of them. This is the sort of talk that is sorely needed in this nation at the present day. With all our marvelous prosperity the sordid quality of the successes wrung from feverish participation in business and politics and professional work degrades entire communities. Public opinion is debauched by the dazzling stakes won at games of every sort played with consummate selfishness and infinite deceit.

But the World Is Busy.

Whether or not the altruism which President Hadley so eloquently teaches shall guide the efforts of educated workers, at least it is certain that they have before them a splendid field for their energies. With quite as much eagerness as they have shown in other recent years, employers have sought the services of graduates in engineering courses in the various institutions of the country. Reports indicate that all the young engineers from one end of the country to the other had a wide choice of positions placed before them before they stepped from the classrooms. Not only many great industries of the United States were hungry for trained young men, but Mexico, the far East, South America, Cuba and the American colonies demanded such workers to push forward the innumerable enterprises which are being advanced with all the energy that the extraordinary forces of the present can muster. In the words of Senator Quarles of Wisconsin to the graduates of the University of Michigan, "commercialism has been raised to the dignity of a science." In this day of scientific progress, it is only unskilled labor that is too dear, since the skilled worker is cheap at any price. "Brains," said Senator Quarles, "never before commanded so high a premium and the educated man

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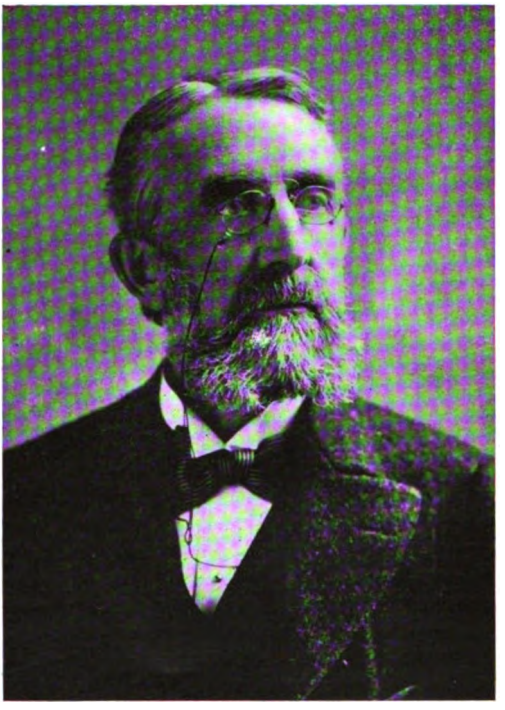
never had so many avenues open to him outside the learned professions." It is well, therefore, that the schools for technical training are becoming numerous in this country, since the youth without skill in some useful work or other must make a place for himself against large odds, the world being too busy with tasks that require technical knowledge to stop and put him through his apprenticeship.

For a School of Politics.

Andrew D. White, former president of Cornell University and until recently ambassador to Germany, expressed very forcibly at the Yale graduating exercises what he held to be the greatest need in American life to-day. This is the need of educated young men to hold public office honestly and capably. To the debauched public sentiment which insists on taking any sort of candidates for office that a corrupt party caucus may choose to name, the proposition that youths be especially educated for the office-holding profession will seem sufficiently grotesque. Yet this is merely a proof of the depth to which we have descended in this country. The forms of lawlessness that are sanctioned by the official receiver of bribes and the accomplice of criminal politicians can never be abolished from our cities, our state capitals and our national capital until the cunning of the successful manipulator of primaries and conventions is supplanted by the honest intelligence of educated men of character who have their merit to commend them and nothing more. Public sentiment must be lifted out of the wallow of blind partisanship and set upon a plane sufficiently high to be able to discover the difference between a plausible rascal and an honest expert in affairs of government. Dr. White's plan for the endowment of professorships and scholarships in twenty-five American universities for the study of public affairs, municipal, state and national government, international law and other similar subjects, is entirely pertinent to the solution of the pressing problem of banishing corruption and incompetence from public places and curing the deadly evil of a debauched public sentiment. Whether or not Mr. Carnegie shall devote $14,000,000, or any part of it, to this work, as Dr. White recommends, at least it may be said that he has spent a great deal more money upon less important benefactions.

On the Founding of Libraries.

In this connection a word should be said regarding the many new libraries that are being founded in the United States through the liberality of Mr. Carnegie. As is generally known, that amazingly rich and generous man has provided money for the erection of hundreds of library buildings in communities



ANDREW D. WHITE.

which agree not only to furnish sites but to tax themselves annually 10 per cent of the cost of the buildings to provide funds for their maintenance and for the purchase of new volumes for the shelves. A report made to the American Library Association at its twenty-fifth annual meeting at Niagara Falls, N. Y., June 28, announced that Mr. Carnegie had given 158 libraries during the year, their total cost being $6,679,000. Six months ago he said in an address, "I have helped found 730 libraries and have 800 more under advisement." Not only will these institu-

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tions place large numbers of useful books in the hands of readers who will profit by them, but they will become permanent patrons of thinkers who have in hand important researches and who desire to make known to the world the results of their work. The reward of the scholar will be reasonably certain when there shall have been established many well-supported institutions where worthy books are regularly bought. This is better than a public pension for learned men. Their independence and self-respect are not interfered with, while their support is assured, since they are provided with purchasers for their works and with readers to thumb their pages, profit by their labors and spread their fame. Much has been said about the benefit to be derived from libraries by those who read; the benefit to those who create should not be overlooked.

Greatest Year of Immigration. Mr. Sargent, the commissioner general of immigration, early last month announced that the total immigration for the fiscal year ended June 30 was approximately 988,245, accurate figures for June then not having been completed. This shows an excess of 200,000 over the next highest immigration in any year, 788,992 in 1882. As the latter total included the arrivals from Canada and Mexico, which are not counted in the figures for last year, the difference is still greater than appears at first glance. The tide is still rising. Persecutions of the Jews in Roumania and Russia, political disturbances in Croatia and Finland and economic conditions in Italy and elsewhere must tend to crowd the steerage of vessels bound for the United States for some months to come. Of course, the prosperous condition of this country has the most to do with bringing on the great influx of foreigners. Investigations by Special Agent Braun of the Immigration Bureau have disclosed that the steamship companies have agents at work throughout many parts of Europe, particularly Austria and Hungary, for the purpose of inducing people to come to the United States. He also discovered conclusive evidence of violations of the contract labor law. Indeed, it is to be supposed that not a few of the million foreigners who came to our shores last year received direct encouragement to come from representatives of great industries which desire an abundance of cheap labor. An agitation has even been under way in California for the importation of 10,000 indentured Chinamen to supply fruit growers and railway companies of the state with labor that they greatly need. It is most unfortunate from an economic point of view no less than from that of the sociologist that such an overwhelming proportion of the immigrants thrust themselves into the overcrowded warrens of the large cities instead of finding their way to the farms and orchards of the west. One trouble is, of course, that farm work is largely intermittent, whereas in cities the foreigners can herd together for their mutual solace and pick up a living in one way or another all the year round. This problem of the congestion of immigrants in cities deserves more careful attention than it has received in the past. A partial compensation for such congestion may exist in the facilities offered by city life for making the children of foreign parents Americans in speech and methods.

Work of the New Department. In accordance with the law establishing the new Department of Commerce and Labor Secretary Cortelyou inaugurated the work of that department July 1. The many important bureaus transferred to him from other departments came under his supervision on that day. A few of them are the Bureau of Foreign Commerce, the Bureau of Labor, the Census Bureau and the Bureau of Immigration. The new Bureau of Corporations, of which Commissioner Garfield is the head, is expected to prove of benefit in curbing the operations of harmful combines, though its powers and efficiency are still to be demonstrated. It is clear that much unnecessary duplication of work is to be done away with by combining in one department the various branches of the government that deal with affairs of commerce and labor. The very competent head of this ninth great cabinet office, who owes his appointment to his own worth and not at all to politics, is ambitious to perform valuable service for the nation and in view of his ability and his opportunities it may be expected that he will gratify his ambition. The department entered upon its work with 1,289 officials in Washington

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A SINGULAR SPECTACLE.
Mr. John Weaver, Mayor of Philadelphia and an Englishman by birth, reading the Declaration of Independence outside of Independence Hall on July 4.
(From a photograph taken for THE WORLD TO-DAY, by Pierce & Jones.)

and 8,836 in the country at large, its total appropriations for the fiscal year being $9,796,847. "No other department has a wider field," said Secretary Cortelyou in outlining its possibilities to his bureau chiefs, "if the just expectations of the framers of the legislation are realized. None will have closer relations with the people or greater opportunities for effective work." Since our foreign relations turn largely upon questions of trade it is clear that the new department will have an important influence upon those relations. The American tariff is planned to assist our commerce; reciprocity treaties have no other purpose than to extend the field of operations of American exporters. Evidently the secretary of commerce and labor must fill a considerable part of the horizon in the official world at Washington, even if one overlooks the relations which he bears to the trusts and to questions of work and wages which affect the masses of the toilers.

A Year's Financial Showing.

During the fiscal year that closed June 30 the receipts of the national government were $558,887,525, the expenditures were $506,176,590 and the net profits of the business were $52,710,935, or a million dollars a week. The enormous imports produced $283,891,719 in customs duties, and the internal revenue taxes, notwithstanding the abolition of the last of the war taxes at the beginning of the fiscal year, produced $230,115,256, a reduction of $41,764,866. Miscellaneous receipts, swollen by large sales of public lands in the West, reached $44,880,551. The available cash balance on June 30 was $231,545,012. Notwithstanding the enormous expenditures authorized by Congress, therefore, the amount of cash in the treasury is so large as to be a menace to business because of its withdrawal from the channels of trade. Spendthrift measures adopted by congressmen are not a good substitute for tariff reform that lowers taxation and adjusts the government's receipts to the government's needs. Yet the voice of the tariff reformer in the dominant political party has grown almost inaudible. "Good times" and "Let well enough alone," are supposed to be the proper watchwords for the party as it approaches the presidential year. Sentiment in favor of lower tariff duties seems to have reached its lowest ebb. That any serious check administered to the nation's prosperity would cause a swift revulsion of feeling may be readily believed, however. The Republican party is laying its hazard upon the probability that no such

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THE ONLY PRESENT DAY PORTRAIT OF HARRIET LANE JOHNSTON.
Niece of President Buchanan, and former mistress of the White House, who died July 4, 1903.

check will come before the next general election. To a less confident player for high stakes than this well satisfied party it might seem that a little more caution than it manifests would be desirable.

Iowa Republicans Meet. Efforts to keep down the sentiment for tariff reform in the Republican party resulted in the elimination of the so-called "Iowa idea" from the platform adopted by the state convention at Des Moines, July 1. Though Governor Cummins, a sturdy tariff reformer, was renominated by acclamation, the declaration of the convention in regard to the Dingley law was notably different from those made by the two previous state conventons. Senator Allison took an active part in framing the platform. It approves the policy of reciprocity as warmly as if Republican senators at Washington had not conspired to defeat that policy with unctious hypocrisy for years. The frank declaration made by the Cummins tariff plank of last year that the Dingley law gives shelter to monopoly is carefully eliminated from Senator Allison's harmony platform. Its one admission is that the tariff is not necessarily perfect and permanently unalterable, but "must from time to time be changed to meet changing conditions." It adds with great gravity: "Duties that are too low should be increased and duties that are too high should be reduced." The platform of 1902 declared in favor of "any modification of the tariff schedules that may be required to prevent their affording shelter to monopoly." Iowa Republicans having been led to put the question of tariff reform into the background out of deference to the fears of such peace loving men as Senator Allison and the convictions of such high tariff advocates as Secretary Shaw, the issue will be less prominent than usual in the state campaign this year. The hope is felt, apparently, that it will not be forced upon the party by public opinion too imperiously to be resisted even in the national campaign of next year. That, however, is rather a question of good crops and good prices than of political finesse.

Convention of Iowa Democrats. That the tariff issue is very generally regarded as the only issue for them to press to the front has been demonstrated by the Democrats in various ways since the president's energetic actions in regard to trust regulation have blocked them in that direction. The contention that the tariff creates and nourishes trusts is conspicuous in the platform adopted at the state convention of the Iowa Democrats held in Des Moines, June 24. Though Jeremiah B. Sullivan, the candidate for governor nominated by them, was a strong advocate of free silver coinage in the Bryan campaigns the platform has no word to say in favor of that policy and the convention by a vote of 463 to 354 declined to declare its allegiance to the principles of the Kansas City platform of 1900. An effort to secure a declaration in favor of government ownership of railways was defeated by a vote of 628 to 199. Such energy, therefore, as the party in Iowa can muster during the canvass which must result in the defeat of its ticket will be devoted to the advocacy of tariff reform. So good a tariff reformer as Governor Cummins is not likely to keep entirely silent upon that subject, notwithstanding

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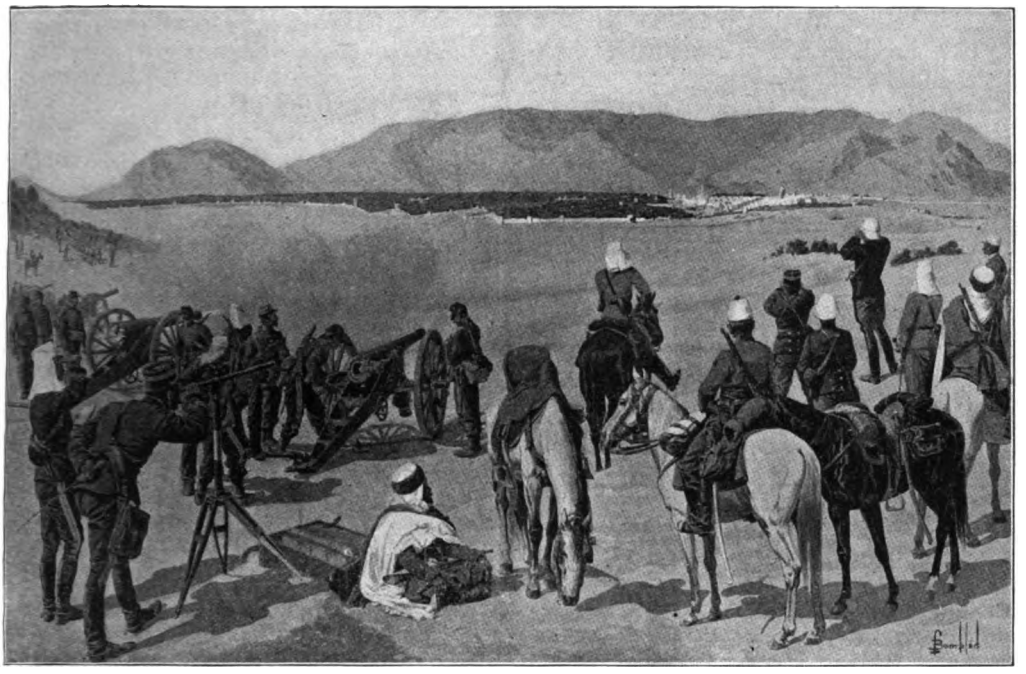

THE WAR IN MOROCCO.
Bombardment of the oasis of Figuig in Morocco by French artillery, June 8.

the diplomatic phrases which were substituted in his party's platform this year for the blunt views which he is fond of expressing and which had the remarkable effect last summer of inducing Speaker Henderson to retire from public life. If those views are temporarily in eclipse at least one may be permitted to doubt whether the president and the other wise men of the party will succeed in getting away from them permanently.

Cuba's Continued Prosperity. Because of the disgraceful opposition to the granting of trade reciprocity with Cuba which manifested itself in both sessions of the late Congress and in the proceedings of the present Senate in its special session of last spring, the existing prosperity of that island is clearly due to other causes than any trade benefits extended to it by the United States. Cubans have come to look with a considerable degree of indifference upon the efforts still to be made in their behalf by the president and others who believe that this nation is bound in honor to give preferential duties to the sugar and tobacco grown in the new republic. While we have been shuffling and postponing action that would establish trade relations highly advantageous to American exporters as well as to Cubans our trade with Cuba has been dwindling rapidly. In 1899 $37,188,597 worth of American goods were imported into Cuba. For the three succeeding years the figures are as follows: 1900, $32,248,595; 1901, $28,460,251; 1902, $25,243,200. While this decline of nearly $12,000,000 in three years has come about Cuba's trade with Spain, Great Britain, Germany and France has been growing. Its total imports for 1902 amounted to $60,574,800. The United States therefore supplies little more than 40 per cent. of Cuba's imports. This is a commercial absurdity, considering our varied resources, our vast markets and our proximity to Cuba's ports. Europe, 3,000 miles away, sends more goods thither than do we. Nothing save the short-sighted folly of Congress now prevents American exporters from occupying a favored position in Cuban markets. Because of the mysterious opposition which manifests itself in Washington whenever the question of Cuban reciprocity comes up it is by no means certain that the extra session of Congress next November will result in the

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final adoption of that policy. On July 2 a treaty was signed in Havana by United States Minister Squiers and Señor Zaldo, the Cuban foreign minister, by which the Isle of Pines was transferred to Cuba. On the same day a treaty was signed granting to the United States coaling stations at Guantanamo and Bahia Honda.

British Tariff Discussion. It may be supposed that the inveterate high tariff advocates in this country are greatly cheered and materially strengthened in their views by the tariff discussion which has been precipitated in Great Britain by Colonial Secretary Chamberlain. If one is prepared to admit that they have reason to be confirmed in their advocacy of protection by the British agitation at least one should expect them to draw from the same source inspiration for earnest support of genuine trade reciprocity. Stiff-necked opposition by Washington statesmen to the policy of Blaine and McKinley of extending our markets by bringing about mutual trade concessions with foreign nations has furnished Canada with its reason for seeking preferential treatment from Great Britain in exchange for similar favors granted to British exporters. Even yet there is time to enter into reciprocal arrangements with Canada that would greatly cool its ardor for a British protective tariff taxing the products of the United States and admitting Canadian products duty free. A rigid and highly unscientific protective tariff which shall force Great Britain and its colonies to do all in their power to cripple this nation's export trade is not a possession of which far-seeing and patriotic statesmen have reason to feel proud. If they are to cling to their idols, reject the policy of reciprocity and wait for the Chamberlain programme to work itself out to the hurt of American producers they will have done nothing to boast of. The negotiation and ratification of wise reciprocity treaties by the United States is the proper method of meeting Mr. Chamberlain's movement for an imperial Zollverein. That movement is gaining strength in England. In spite of the impassioned and powerful arguments against it made in Parliament and elsewhere by such able men of the ministerial party as Viscount Goschen, Sir Michael Hicks-Beach and Mr. Richie, chancellor of the exchequer; in spite of the unstinted condemnation of Lord Rosebery, Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman, Mr. Asquith, Sir Edward Grey and other Liberals, influential forces are ranging themselves at the back of the colonial secretary and the chances of his ultimate success seem to be increasing. The question has survived the burst of horror with which it was greeted and its vitality now bids fair to carry it far even in the face of early and crushing defeats.

The Fight for Free Trade. Persistent questioning by Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman, Sir Charles Dilke and other Liberals in the House of Commons has drawn from Mr. Balfour the information that the ministry is now investigating the questions that would be involved in making such a revolutionary departure from the nation's policy as the adoption of a protective tariff. In a notable speech on June 18 the premier made a labored defense of the government's present attitude of maintaining an open mind on the subject while bringing it forward for discussion. Any other method of examining into "new difficulties raised by new circumstances" would inevitably bring disruption, the speaker declared. To mature a policy in silence and then "in the twinkling of an eye and at a moment's notice" thrust it upon a party had been proved disastrous by Sir Robert Peel and by Gladstone. "The Tory party," said Mr. Balfour, "was destroyed in 1845 and for twenty or thirty years was deprived of all its ablest men. I do not go into the case of 1886, because I do not wish to make points against anybody upon this occasion." The question of adopting the policy of protection, he held, was an incomparably more complex question than those which confronted Peel and Gladstone. This seems a reasonable defense for the plan of giving the Conservative party and the country time to think the subject over before voting upon it in Parliament or presenting it to the electorate. Mr. Balfour, however, necessarily occupies an unheroic position so long as he maintains an open mind on the great question while his convinced colonial secretary pulls the government in the direction of a certain test of the policy. The colonies show a growing

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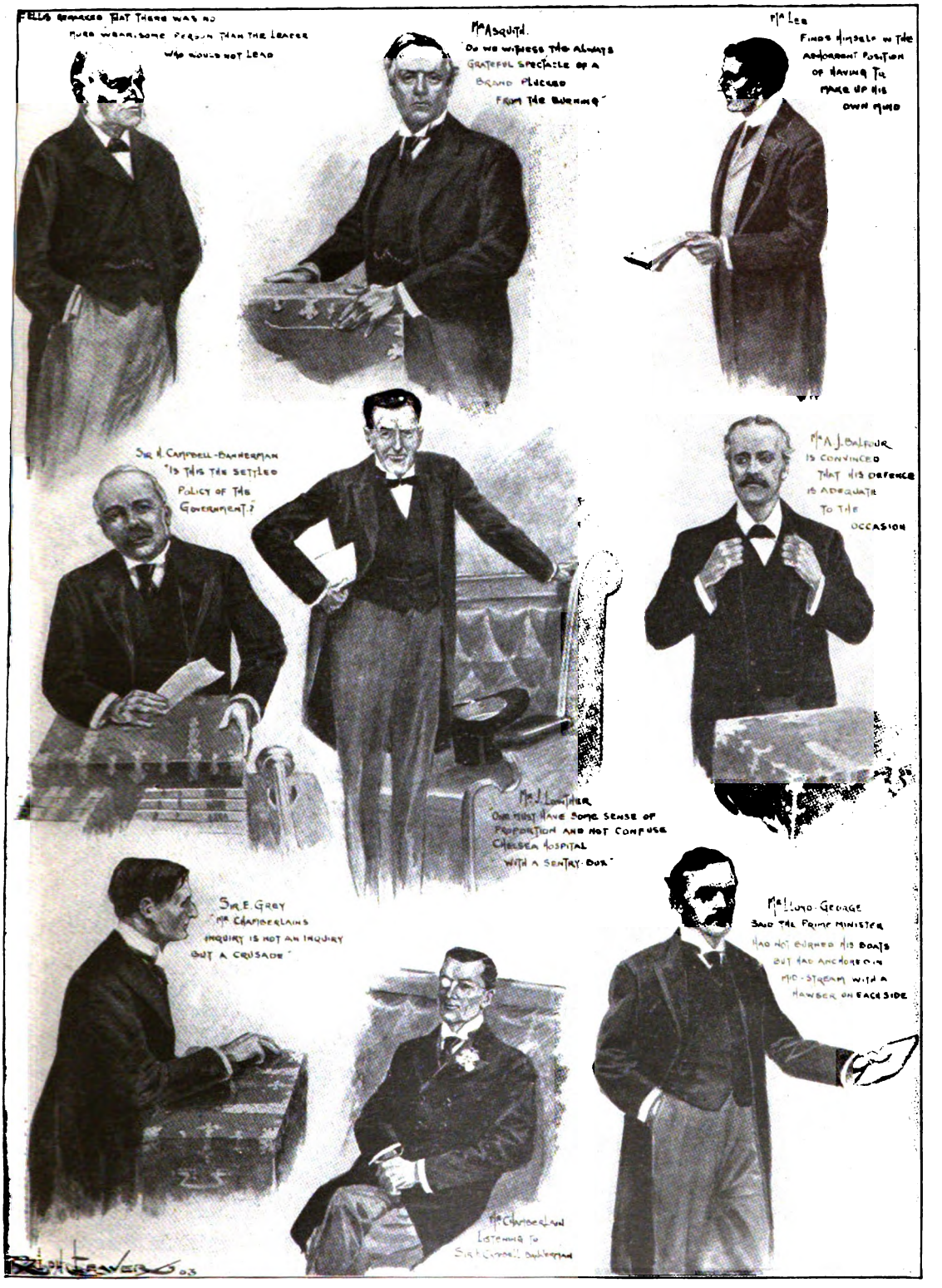

CHARACTERISTIC PORTRAITS OF THE LEADERS IN THE GREAT PROTECTION DEBATE IN THE ENGLISH PARLIAMENT.
(From the "London News.")

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eagerness for the Zollverein. To raise their hopes only to dash them down again assuredly would be dangerous to the empire, as even the free traders must admit. While such powerful Conservatives as Viscount Goschen denounces the Chamberlain programme as "a gamble in food," while fifty-seven Conservative members of the House of Commons have met and resolved to do all in their power to combat the new policy, while important labor organizations are moving to assess their members to raise funds to fight food taxation, the feeling that a protective tariff will come at the end of the agitation, no matter how long it may continue, is now widespread.

Empire or Kingdom?

Colonial Secretary Chamberlain has the advantage of possessing imagination. His thoughts and his vision embrace the British empire as a whole. In contriving to bind together strongly and permanently that loosely-knit fabric lies, in his opinion, assurance of the future greatness of the British people. If the Englishman suffers from dear bread tnere are the vast veldts and prairies of the empire upon which he can settle and grow wheat. Lord Strathcona, speaking July 1 at the banquet in honor of Dominion day, promised England that within a short time Canada alone would provide every pound of breadstuffs required by the former. Lord Rosebery, addressing a not too friendly audience of Essex farmers recently in opposition to the protection policy, affirmed that the virgin soils of the colonies would get the benefit of that policy and that the ancient fields of England would be harder to cultivate than ever. "The rural depopulation," he said, "which from the national aspect is the gravest evil of the present condition of agriculture, would increase, because it is quite obvious that what labor you want would be bound to go to cultivate those new regions of wheat-growing for Canada and Australia rather than remain in a worn-out country like this." Doubtless this is true to a certain extent, but good prices for British wheat would raise the price of rural labor and that would provide the laborers. Mr. Chamberlain is not a great landowner as is Lord Rosebery, but he has seen a vision of a powerful, rich and self-sustaining empire. If he can impart it to the masses of the teeming island which King Edward rules perhaps they will consent to eat dear bread in order that the vision may be realized.

Progress of the Land Bill.

After coming perilously near defeat on June 16, when an amendment to the Irish land bill proposed by Mr. Redmond and opposed by Secretary Wyndham was rejected by a majority of only 41, that measure was placed in a hopeful condition once more on June 24, when Mr. Wyndham made concessions to the Irish members which were accepted as satisfactory by all. Mr. Redmond and the Irish members generally were prepared to break with the government on the question of fixing a minimum price for land below which it could not be bought even if the owner of the land were willing to take less. If Mr. Wyndham had not found himself in a position to get around this point the bill would have come to nothing after all the enthusiasm and high hopes it had inspired. The concessions made the progress of the bill easy and rapid from that time on, and prophecies of its early passage were general. Since the solution of the Irish land problem offered by the bill is acceptable to Liberals and Conservatives only because it is desired by the Irish representatives and promises to end the long agitation, clearly the Irish are in a position to secure such reasonable amendments as they insist upon. The government must have their support not only in passing this bill but on other matters also if it is to be measurably secure from overthrow until it is ready to go to the people for a renewal of power. That a tax on food such as Mr. Chamberlain wants would tend to benefit an agricultural people cultivating their own lands is clear enough; therefore the Irish members are not likely to quarrel seriously at this time with Mr. Chamberlain's theories which have so greatly agitated England.

Our Relations with Russia.

Irritation at Washington because of the obstructions met with in negotiating a commercial treaty with China by which the ports of Mukden, Takushan and Harbin, in Manchuria, were to be opened to foreign trade, led to an extraordinary exchange of unofficial and impersonal communications between the American and Russian governments at the beginning of

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last month. While the immediate cause of the irritation was somewhat obscure at the time, at least it was clear that President Roosevelt and his advisers believed they had been trifled with by Count Cassini, the Russian ambassador, either through his own lack of tact or through his attempts to carry out instructions from St. Petersburg that were marred by duplicity. Expression of the displeasure thus aroused took a very singular form. On June 15 a committee from the great Jewish benevolent society, the B'nai B'rith, called upon the president and the secretary of state to urge that action be taken by them which should place before the Czar a petition urging him to endeavor to end religious persecutions in his empire. The committee was given no assurances that the government would take the matter up. Indeed, both the president and Secretary Hay indicated their belief that the Czar already was doing all in his power to stop the atrocities and punish the persons who committed them. Ten days later, however, Secretary Hay notified the committee that the government would forward the petition to the Czar. Greatly perturbed, the Russian ambassador gave to the American press several statements as to the attitude which Russia would take in regard to the petition, declaring that this nation would resent any representations from Russia respecting its lynchings. On July 1 he gave out a denial of a report published in Europe that the Russian government had made to the United States an official explanation of the Kishinev massacre and added: "The Russian government must categorically refuse to receive from any power any petitions, representations or communications relative to its internal affairs." The next day Mr. Loomis, acting secretary of state, delivered to the press, with the authority of President Roosevelt, a declaration to the effect that the Jewish petition would be sent to the Czar and that "the state department would, of course, pay no heed to any statement purporting to emanate from the Russian government unless such statement were made officially in some form or other to our own government." Appended to this was the following comment which was understood to have been penned by President Roosevelt himself: "In this connection it was pointed out by another, who disclaimed any purpose to speak in his official capacity, however, that it seemed somewhat strange, to say the least, that the Russian government should choose the particular method of making a statement to the American people at the very time when by methods which are certainly the reverse of friendly to the United States it has sought to make China join in breaking its plighted faith to all the powers as to the open door in Manchuria and has endeavored to bar our people from access to the Manchurian trade." Sparring such as this might lead to broken heads if carried on beyond a certain point.

Demanding the Open Door.

At this writing the best explanation of the affair seems to be that Russia is held responsible by Washington for its failure to secure the three treaty ports in Manchuria which it wants and which China declines to open to foreign trade. Certainly the assurances received at St. Petersburg by Ambassador McCormick and those given at Washington by Count Cassini were such as to justify the belief that no such opposition would be encountered from the Russian government. The direct, though unofficial, charge made by the president that Russia has performed an unfriendly act in connection with these negotiations must be based upon perfectly satisfactory evidence in order to be justifiable. That this unfriendly act in the face of representations of an entirely different complexion had led the president to doubt the truth of the Russian ambassador's assertions to the effect that the Czar's government was trying to prevent persecutions of the Jews might serve as an excuse for coupling with the Manchurian tangle the wholly extraneous petition of the B'nai B'rith. Similar logic would render any expression by Russian diplomats entirely unworthy of belief from the Washington government's point of view. Here, indeed, is an intolerable position for a great nation to be placed in. False in one, false in all, says Washington. St. Petersburg thus would have to justify itself in one way or another or there would have to be a readjustment of its relations with the American government. The American people for their part do not want their nation either to suffer wrong at the hands of the Russians or to break with

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THE NEW KING OF SERVIA IN NATIONAL COSTUME.
From a photograph taken at the time of the unsuccessful revolution in 1875.

them as a result of a blunder in diplomacy. They have no irrepressible conflict brewing with Russia as have the British and the Japanese. Says the *Army and Navy Journal* of June 20: "The thousand million of roubles already expended by Russia on her Siberian, Manchurian and auxiliary systems of railways, and her constant endeavor to secure a hold upon the Pacific, which is certain in the end to be successful, together with the development of our Pacific coast territory, including Alaska, are the precursers of closer relations between Russia and the United States in the future. With her face turned toward the East, as ours is toward the West, the time is coming when the friendship of Russia will be more important to us than that of any other power." Indications that Great Britain and Japan are preparing to force Russia's hand in regard to Manchuria are not lacking. A conference at Port Arthur early in July, participated in by M. Lessar, Russian ambassador at Peking, and Russian army and navy commanders, was believed to have an important bearing on Russia's further movements in the far East.

Servia's New King. King Peter, newly chosen monarch of Servia, arrived at Belgrade June 24 to occupy his blood-drenched throne. He had left his home in Geneva two days before. At Vienna he was met by a deputation of Servians, headed by the mayor of

M. VELEKOVITCH.
New Servian Minister of Finance.

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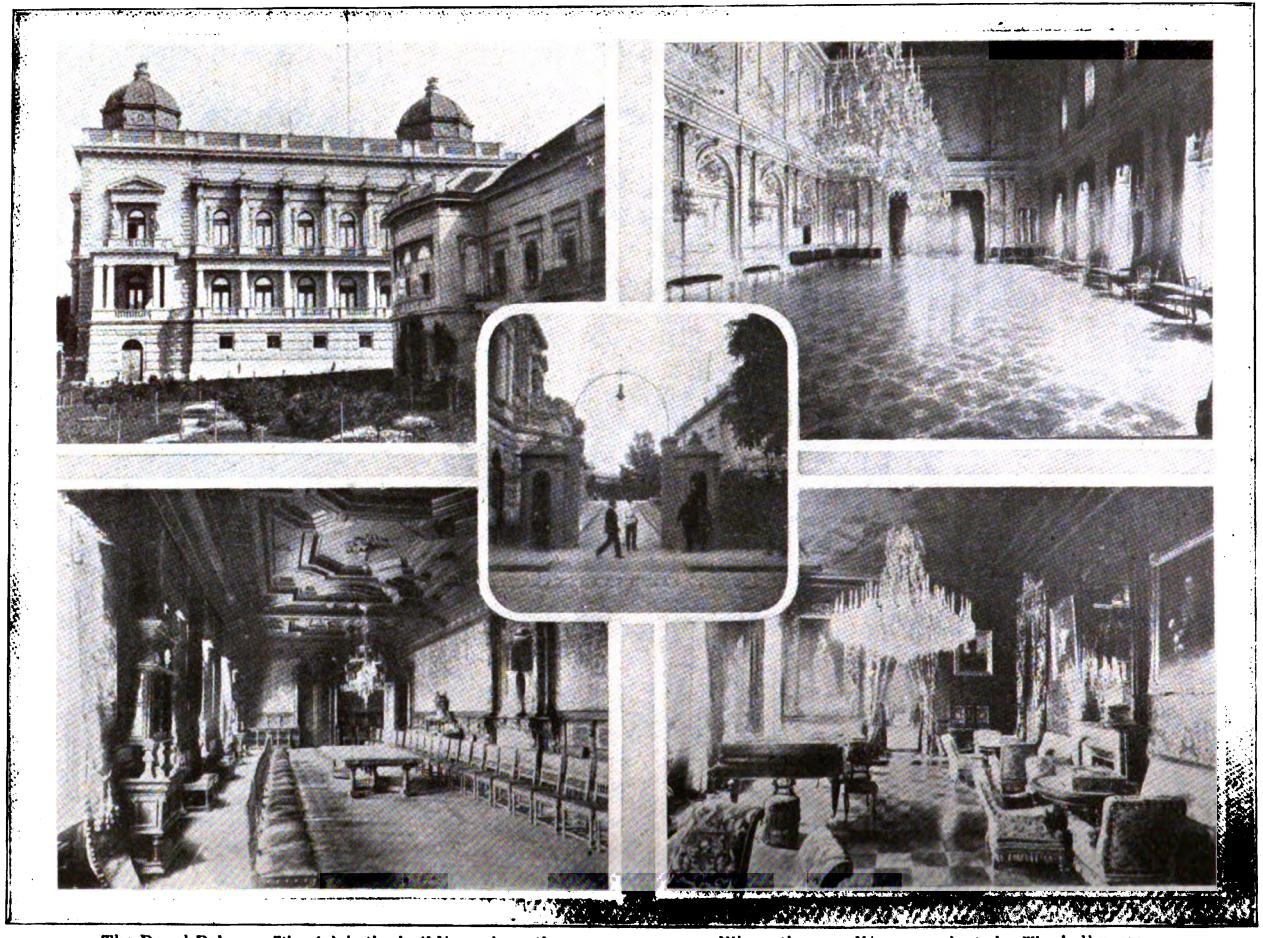

The Royal Palace. The (x) is the building where the assassination took place.

Where the new King was elected. The ball room.

The dining room.

Gateway to Palace.

King Alexander's private room.

THE ROYAL PALACE, BELGRADE.

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BELGRADE, SERVIA; FROM THE NORTHWEST.
The view from the Glacis of the Citadel.

Belgrade, and there he also received a warm greeting from Servian, Croatian, and Montenegrin students of that city. Arrived at Belgrade, he was welcomed by the officials of the self-constituted government and partook of bread and salt from the hand of the mayor. During the succeeding ceremonies he bore himself in a reserved and gloomy manner. Though the foreign diplomats were withdrawn from the Servian capital so as to have no part in the proceedings communications from various monarchs of Europe, including the Czar and Emperor Francis Joseph, had indicated to the new king that no opposition to his accession would be made. Servia's peasant rulers have received no great degree of favor at any time from the monarchs of more exalted ancestry, so that the Servian people are not likely to feel greatly disturbed at the coldness shown their king because of their very informal method of exterminating one dynasty and setting up another. Any punishment that may be accorded by King Peter to the assassins who slew King Alexander, Queen Draga, and their principal supporters, must be nominal at best, since they control the Servian government. Probably, however, so far as the king has power at all it will be used well and for the country's benefit, for he is a man of education and ability. That Russian influence will be strong at Belgrade during his reign is likely, since the king and his father-in-law, Prince Nicholas of Montenegro, have marked Russian leanings. This is an important consideration for Austria, which dominated the court of Alexander as it did that of his father, King Milan. The semi-rebellious Serbs of Croatia and Slavonia, who would look to their brothers of Servia for comfort and assistance against the Magyars if ever they should see a favorable opportunity to strike for liberty, may find encouragement in the change of rulers. To Russia and

MEDALLION OF KING PETER KARAGEORGOVITCH.
Made by an artist cousin in Paris.

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Austria, therefore, the tragedy at Belgrade and the enthronement of a Karageorgevitch is of importance.

Turkey Menaces Bulgaria. Notwithstanding the resignation of Dr. Daneff and the rest of the Bulgarian cabinet in May under the displeasure of Prince Ferdinand, who returned from the Riviera to his capital to find it so full of Macedonian sentiment as to be almost in revolt against himself, the relations between that small country and Turkey have grown worse instead of better. General Petroff, the new premier, a follower of Stambuloff and therefore an opponent of Russian domination at Sofia, seems in good faith to have tried to guard the Bulgarian frontier and turn back armed bands bound for Macedonia to aid their fellow Bulgarians. However, Turkey has not been appeased by these efforts. Systematic attempts by the Turks to exterminate the Bulgarians of Macedonia and to harry the Bulgarian frontier were reported from Sofia late in June. On July 1 the government at Sofia complained to the powers that Turkey was massing troops and artillery at such points as would render easy the invasion of Bulgaria. The friendly governments were urged to compel the withdrawal of the Turkish soldiery and to put a stop to outrages committed upon Bulgarians under the pretext of searching for arms. The Porte hastened to deny the accuracy of Bulgaria's representations, affirming that the latter had been misled by the rapid movements of bodies of Turkish troops along the frontier. The governments at Sofia thereupon reaffirmed its charges and accused Turkey of seeking to mislead the powers. Prince Ferdinand's ministers were almost frantically apprehensive of an immediate invasion of their country. Prompt warnings were sent from Vienna and St. Petersburg to Sofia and Constantinople, the former being told that it must do nothing to provoke Turkey and the latter that an invasion of Bulgaria would not be permitted. That the Turks are exasperated almost beyond endurance by the operations of Bulgarian revolutionists in Macedonia is clear. Without the protection of the powers Bulgaria would be overwhelmed by a Turkish army on short notice. The peril of widespread massacres on Turkish soil is still considerable, since the outrages committed by the Bulgarian organizations are peculiarly atrocious. While the gruesome threat to scatter plague germs in Turkish cities has not been carried out it is reported that a number of children in Salonika were killed recently by means of poisoned candy strewn about the streets.

Conditions in the Philippines. President Roosevelt on July 4 sent to Governor Taft at Manila the first message over the new Pacific cable from San Francisco to the Philippines. In his reply the governor seized the opportunity to make "an earnest plea for the reduction of the tariff on Filipino products." It is to be hoped that he will continue to use the cable for the transmission of similar messages until the protectionists in Congress grant the reduction which they refused at the session of last winter. For this and other uses very important to the nation and to American commerce the cable must prove of value. President Roosevelt's message of congratulation to President Mackay of the company, sent around the world in the record-breaking time of 12 minutes and answered by a message again lowering the record, this time to nine and a half minutes, fittingly expressed the general appreciation of the genius and enterprise of the Mackays, father and son, which brought the cable into existence. There is reason to hope that the reports from the Philippines brought by this new cable henceforth will be fairly satisfactory. Governor Taft has reported that the scarcity of food among the natives is now relieved to such an extent that famine conditions no longer prevail anywhere. Thousands of carabao inoculated against the rinderpest, which swept away the animals in the islands some months ago, have been imported from India by the government and are being sold to the native farmers on time payments. Captain Pershing and other capable officers have compelled the hostile Moros of Mindanao to lay down their arms and accept American rule. The great military road from the seacoast to the Lake Lanao district has been completed and assures peace and a measure of civilization to that formerly

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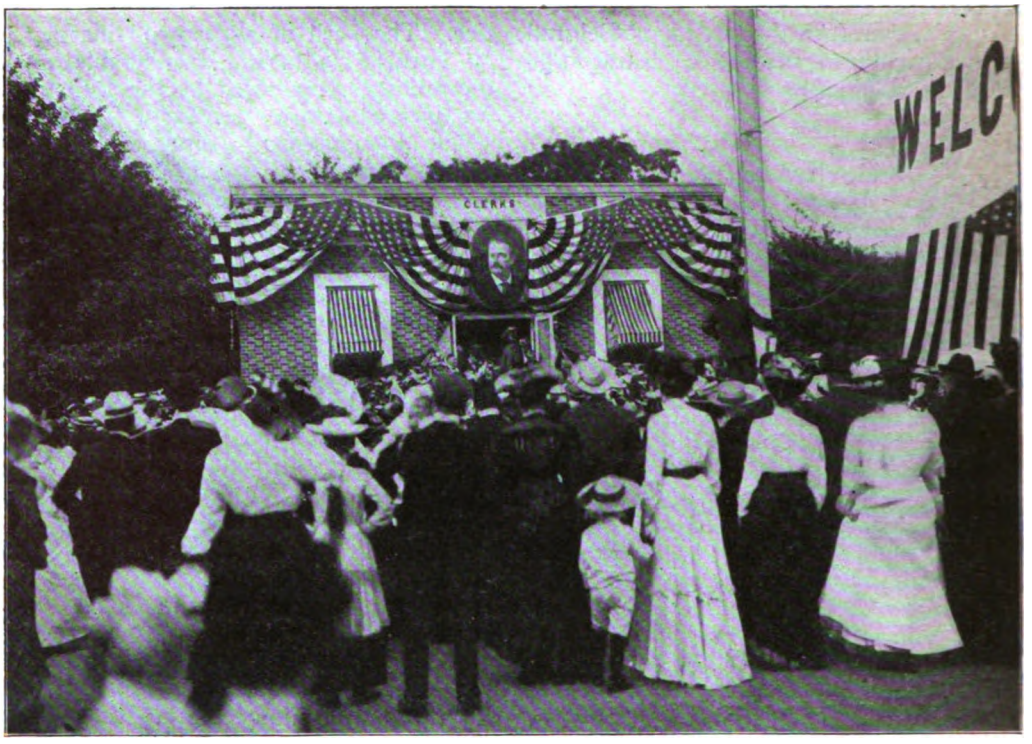

THE PRESIDENT'S RECEPTION AT OYSTER BAY.
The President addressing his neighbors from the town clerk's office.

remote and savage region. Other newly constructed roads in Luzon and elsewhere have opened up rich districts to commerce. Projects for the building of a number of railways in the larger islands either by the government or by private capital are being considered. The work of taking a census of the islands is far advanced and the population tables which have been secured by native enumerators under skilled supervision are expected to reach Washington about September 15. Owing to the obstacles put in the way of the sale to the government of the friars' lands by representatives of the religious orders Mgr. Guidi's efforts to settle that matter thus far have accomplished little. Secretary Root very wisely has interfered to prevent the establishment of an opium monopoly whereby sales of the drug to Chinamen by a licensed company would have been authorized. The insular government seems to have convinced itself that such an arrangement was desirable to prevent illicit traffic in opium and to raise revenue. The insular revenues from opium and whiskey are important considerations.

American Warships at Kiel.

In a Fourth of July address to his neighbors at Huntington, near Oyster Bay, whither he retired for his summer rest at the end of June, President Roosevelt once more expressed his earnest desire for a large increase of the navy in the interests of peace. During the ten days preceding the national holiday Rear Admiral Cotton's flagship, the Kearsarge, and the other vessels of his squadron, demonstrated the value of American warships as promoters of international friendship while on a visit of ceremony. Having been ordered to Kiel for regatta week by the president in response to Emperor William's invitation, they dropped anchor there June 23 and the admiral and his officers were welcomed by Prince Henry, who commanded the German squadron in the harbor. The next day the Emperor arrived and on that and succeeding days showed himself a most gracious host. His attentions to the American officers and to Ambassador Tower were exceedingly courteous and his addresses at dinners attended by the visitors were tactful in the

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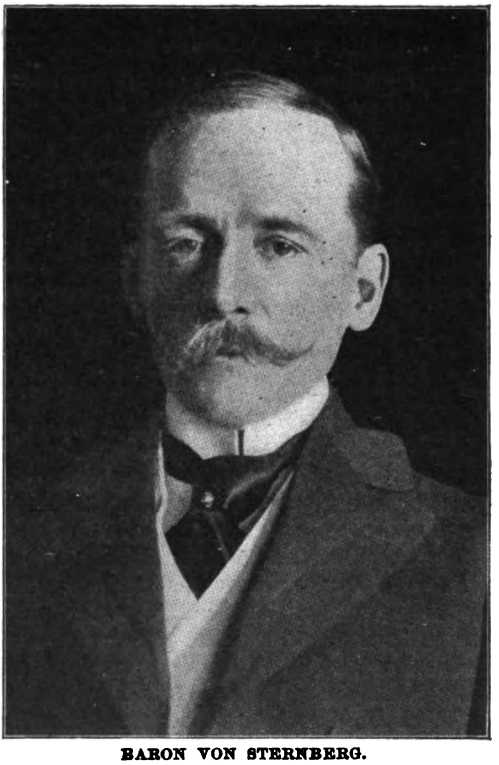
extreme as was also his telegram of thanks and appreciation to President Roosevelt. The impression made by the American warships and their men upon the German people seems to have been good, though a tendency was manifested by some of the Berlin newspapers to criticise the sailors for what was thought to be lack of discipline. The Emperor both as a ruler and as a master of the science of naval warfare won the hearty admiration of the visitors. The American squadron went from Kiel to Portsmouth. Much hospitality was shown the officers and men by British officials and by King Edward during several days. An invitation from the King of Portugal to visit Lisbon at the end of the stay in English waters promised further displays of international good feeling.

Threat to German Commerce.

While the accomplished German Emperor and his American guests were complimenting each other at Kiel officials at Washington were preparing to enforce a new law which went into effect July 1 and which may prove a severe weapon of retaliation against German commerce for laws which have shut out certain American products from that country. This is a sort of savagery which Englishmen shudder at when it is suggested by Mr. Chamberlain but which Americans accept as a part of their system. Under the new law imported goods that are pronounced impure or are labeled falsely may be excluded from this country. Since Germany holds that some American meat products must be excluded as deleterious to health it is natural that the American Department of Agriculture has hastened to discover that a long list of German articles are either impure or are falsely labeled. If the law is to be enforced in such a manner as to cripple German trade either further retaliation or a treaty of mutual tolerance is likely to result. Another feature of German trade with this country may cause complications presently. The countervailing duty levied by the United States against bounty-nourished beet sugar exported from Germany and other European countries under ordinary circumstances should be removed after September 1, since Germany and the other nations which were parties to the Brussels sugar conference cease to pay bounties on that date. It has been intimated at Washington, however, that the duty will not be removed from German sugar because the manufacturers' trust has arranged to keep up the price in Germany to such a figure that it can afford to sell its surplus abroad at a low rate. If such action shall be interpreted by the United States treasury officials as bestowing an indirect bounty or grant on exported sugar and the countervailing duty shall be kept upon this important German product it may be supposed that Germany will retaliate in some way or other. With complications such as these rising or threatening to rise it is no wonder that great powers require large navies to lend dignity to their acts of pettiness.



BARON VON STERNBERG.
German Ambassador at Washington.

Detection of Bad Food.

Not only in its experiments as to the effects of food preservatives on the human system, which are being conducted systematically by Dr. Wiley, but in its careful work in detecting and exposing adulterated or bad food, the Department of Agriculture is doing much to protect

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the health of the people. Its newly equipped microscopic laboratory has been instrumental in exposing important food frauds, such as the sale of artificial coffee and adulterated spices. If it were true that wooden nutmegs were manufactured in Connecticut no doubt Secretary Wilson would soon find it out. In this day of food adulteration it is well that the government has gone about the work of exposing cheats in a thoroughly scientific and effective manner. If we are to retaliate upon foreign nations by rejecting impure products shipped from their ports at least we should do it with scientific accuracy. The microscopists of the Department of Agriculture seem capable of getting all the facts which are necessary to the successful combating of food frauds.

In the Vacation Season.

Doubtless the present month will afford notable proof of the spread of the vacation habit. So well-nigh universal has it become among those who can afford to leave their work for a longer or shorter period at the height of summer that one now finds its spread restricted of necessity mainly to the individuals who for the first time in their busy lives are in a position to take a holiday. It has come to be generally recognized that a play spell fits the person who enjoys it for better and more productive work throughout the rest of the year than he is capable of if he does not throw off the harness temporarily. The cost of a modest amount of recreation is more than offset by later profits resulting from renewed bodily vigor and mental alertness. For the wage worker who does not get an annual vacation the Saturday half holiday through the summer months and the open air pleasures of fair-weather Sundays count for a great deal. To get rest and recreation at this time of the year is a duty which every worker owes to himself and to his family. These substantial summer joys are so largely made up of three necessary ingredients, good temper, open air and sunlight, that they are literally within the reach of all except the most wretched individuals. Discarding the burden of routine duties either by giving them up altogether for a time or by simplifying them until they become relatively unimportant, is an essential feature of the summer regimen. If the people of this nerve-racked nation would systematically set about the agreeable task of putting aside all unnecessary care during the three months of summer they could work more cheerfully and to better advantage at all other times in the year and could also cut down the profits of the undertaker in a marked manner.

Volume of Summer Travel.

Cheap railway rates and countless excursions give to the masses of the people opportunities to visit points of interest far and near at comparatively low cost during the season of summer outing. The seashore and the mountains, as well as innumerable lake resorts, overflow with the throngs who have left their cares behind them. This is a grateful relaxation for toilers of every sort. Very different is the aspect of these summer throngs from that of the people who congregate at winter resorts. Age or disease or the languor that comes with harvested wealth adds pathos to the average exile who takes the trouble to look for enjoyment and moderate temperatures when rough winds blow. The pleasuring of the fit is far more cheerful from every point of view. Whether it takes the form of mountain climbing or sailing or fishing or golfing or whether the holiday maker merely loafs in the shade during his weeks of leisure, the pause in the every-day proceedings of his life is a time of getting ready to take a firmer grip on affairs. It is a pity that so much of the summer recreation is sought by people in the mass. Humanity in bulk at a popular resort is something sweaty and uncomfortable, something herded and driven. When lodgings are not to be had and meals are gained only at the price of much exasperation and at the tail of a dehumanizing crush, one cannot attain to that placidity which gives long life. One must regret, therefore, that the resorts are usually either shockingly full or distressingly empty. Probably there is no help for this unless one has the gift of doing restful things that do not attract the innumerable caravan of summer rest seekers.

Taking Vacations at Home.

If they would consent to get out of the beaten track of every-day existence without going to the expense of buying railway tickets the people who cannot afford the

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time or the money to leave home could have vacations like the rest of the world. Some philanthropist with a genius for invention should turn his attention to the work of teaching people how to make their daily lives in hot weather as different as possible from what they are ordinarily. Backyard gypsying is better than no gypsying at all. The dubious pleasures of the neighborhood picnic, if indulged in with moderation, might help. Because one cannot go to Europe or to Newport that does not preclude one from luxuriating on one's own stoop after the gas lamps are lighted. So slight a thing as the judicious substitution of salads for chops and of healthful and cooling drinks for hot coffee shows a willing mind and a disposition to take thought of the season. In short, it will be impossible to cheat the busiest of mankind out of a passable holiday if he insists on having it in spite of untoward circumstances. To take on the vacation spirit for a few weeks and make the most of one's opportunities such as they are is a piece of hygienic wisdom that well deserves to be set over against the various arguments in favor of the strenuous life.

Prosecutor Folk of St. Louis.

Perhaps the most astonishing thing about the work of Circuit Attorney Joseph W. Folk of St. Louis is that while he has exposed the corrupt methods of many rascals connected with the government of that city and of other rascals who bribed them, has collected masses of evidence proving their guilt and has secured their conviction in court, they still enjoy their freedom and a large amount of political power. In short, there seems to be something wrong with the administration of justice in Missouri higher up than the circuit attorney of St. Louis can reach. He has also exposed a bribe-taking organization in the Missouri legislature in which the lieutenant governor was a shining light and which numbered among its members many state senators and others. He has disclosed that more than $300,000 has been paid in bribes to influence legislation at Jefferson City in recent years. The details of these corrupt performances have been laid bare. But what is to come of it all is more than the good citizens of Missouri can tell as yet. Unless the convictions of guilty but influential rogues are made to stick and they are compelled to serve out the terms of imprisonment allotted to them by the juries who heard the evidence, unless the corrupt influences which now control municipal and state politics are crushed, the splendid work of Folk will result in no lasting benefit. Despite the sneers of guilty men that this forceful young prosecutor has done his duty merely to gain political advancement the sentiment is growing among the friends of reform in that state that he must succeed Governor Dockery as the

JOSEPH W. FOLK.
Circuit Attorney of St. Louis.

chief executive of Missouri at the end of the latter's term if the complete overthrow of its corrupt political elements is to be brought about. If the people of Missouri earnestly desire reform not only in their legislative assemblies but in their higher courts they will regard with favor the plan to elect Folk governor. Indeed, it is said that if the Democrats fail to nominate him for that office the Republicans will jump at the opportunity to make him their candidate, provided he will permit them to do so, believing that he would give that party the victory in Missouri for the first time in

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many years. Mr. Bryan, Mr. Watterson and others have even suggested him for the Democratic nomination for president next year, but Missouri needs him too badly for that.

Preaching "the Old Gospel."

In his evangelistic work the late Mr. Moody continually reiterated the appeal to his hearers that they accept "the old gospel" as quite sufficient for their spiritual needs. The Rev. R. A. Torrey of Chicago, who has recently returned from an eighteen months' tour of the world, during which he held a remarkable series of revival meetings, quite in the manner of Mr. Moody and his other great predecessors who preached powerfully the word of God, brought about striking results by his presentation of "the old time religion" to the minds and hearts of people of many races. The Hawaiian Islands, Japan, China, Australia, India, Scotland and Ireland saw great meetings and many conversions, the results attained in Australia being especially remarkable. That thirty thousand conversions resulted from these gatherings sufficiently discloses the great force with which the truths of the Bible were presented by this able evangelist. Naturally therefore Mr. Torrey has been hailed as "Mr. Moody's successor." His methods seem to be Mr. Moody's methods; but then the same methods were used with enduring results by St. Paul and all the other successful evangelists back to the Nazarene Himself. The refinements of religion do not appeal to the masses like the plain arguments that convince plain men and women. Such a tour as that made by Mr. Torrey is rather better even than the cruise of a naval squadron as a civilizing influence. Yet some Christian nations that one might name are in the habit of setting great store by the latter. Mr. Torrey has proved again that the truths of religion are not outworn and that the human heart responds readily to them when simply and earnestly expressed. (See page 1065.)

Colombia and the Treaty.

When the Colombian Congress met in extraordinary session at Bogota June 20 to consider the treaty with the United States granting the latter nation the right to construct the Panama canal the opposition manifested to the measure presaged a long discussion of the subject and made the outcome appear dubious. President Marroquin's message urged the ratification of the treaty, but insisted that the Congress should bear the full responsibility for its action. The discussion that followed during many days seems to have been mainly devoted to killing time and expressing the patriotic sentiments of the debaters. It developed that a large majority of the members wanted the treaty amended in one way or another. Americans, who feel that the small republic has been offered a rare bargain, must regard with astonishment the opposition to the treaty. That the provinces of Panama and Cauca, through which the canal would pass, are eager for the ratification of the measure is not surprising. Reports that they would be likely to secede from Colombia and set up a republic of their own in the event of its rejection may or may not have a substantial foundation. It is scarcely to be believed that the United States will consent to make concessions of any sort beyond those now incorporated in the treaty. If the Colombians are so blind to their own interests as to block the canal they will do the world and themselves a great disservice which cannot stand as the final word on the subject. It is difficult, however, to believe that they can be guilty of an act of such stupendous folly as to reject the treaty. The charge is made that American railway interests opposed to the canal are working at Bogota in opposition to ratification.

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The World in General.

Alaska and Its Possibilities.

BY

EUGENE PARSONS.

THE speech of President Roosevelt at Seattle, May 23, contained some predictions concerning Alaska that have attracted widespread attention. "I am speaking in the gateway to Alaska," he remarked, "and all our people, even those from the locality whence I come, are beginning to appreciate a little of Alaska's future. The men of my age whom I am addressing, will not be old men before we see Alaska one of the rich, mighty, and populous states of the Union. And I thank fortune that the national legislature has begun to wake up to the fact that Alaska has interests of vital importance, not merely to her, but to the entire Union. Alaska contains a territory which will within this century support as large a population as the combined Scandinavian countries of Europe—those countries from which has sprung as wonderful a race as ever imprinted its characteristics upon the history of civilization. And exactly as the Scandinavian regions have left their mark upon the entire history of Europe, so we shall see Alaska, with its mines, its lumber, its fisheries, with its varied and great possibilities in agriculture and stock-raising, with its possibilties of commercal command, with the tremendous development that is going on within it even now—we shall see Alaska produce as hardy and vigorous a people as any portion of North America."

When Seward negotiated the purchase of Alaska from Russia in 1867, for $7,200,000, few Americans, if any, supposed the new territory was a valuable possession. Only within the past decade have we come to realize its vast importance, commercially speaking. Since 1867 Alaska has supplied furs, fish, and gold valued at $150,000,000. From 1898 to 1901 inclusive, the shipments of merchandise from the United States to Alaska aggregated about $13,000,000 a year, and since the purchase, our exports have amounted to more than $100,000,000. The population, estimated at 30,000 in 1867, has grown to 75,000 at the present time. The country has schools, churches, manufacturing establishments, railways, telegraphs, banks, and other institutions that make for progress. Much has been done to civilize the natives, many of whom (it is said) "have abandoned the old style of living and adopted the modern avocations of white men. They live in permanent communities, build substantial homes, engage in work at the sawmills, logging camps, in the mines, and about the wharves."

It is hard for Americans to realize what a great country Alaska is. It has an area of 590,000 square miles, which is as large as the combined area of the New England States, the Middle States, and most of the Southern States east of the Mississippi. It is equal to nearly one-fifth of the area of the United States from California to Maine. The President's prophecy may more than come true. It is not improbable that several States will in time be carved out of Alaska.

According to C. C. Georgeson, of the U. S. Department of Agriculture, Alaska has abundant resources to support a population of at least 3,000,000 people. He says: "There never could be a greater misconception in regard to a geographical fact than the popular idea that it is a snow-covered, inhospitable waste, and it is strange that this idea should be so persist-

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ently propagated and disseminated among the people. As a matter of fact, you can travel from one end of the Yukon to the other in summer time and never see snow. You see, on the contrary, a tangle of luxuriant vegetation, large forests, and such delicacies as wild raspberries, red currants, huckleberries, and cranberries in profusion. In places the grass grows as high as a man's shoulder."

It is not generally known that large sections of Alaska are suited for farming and gardening. Such crops as oats, wheat, rye, barley, and flax have been raised, and vegetables—potatoes, turnips, beets, peas, celery, etc., grow in abundance. The tillable and pasture land of the territory, at a conservative estimate, amounts to 100,000 square miles.

NATIVES WITH TENT AT NOME, ALASKA.

Professor Georgeson is of the opinion that the percentage of agricultural land is greater than this. The rest (nearly five-sixths of the Territory) consists of mountains and waste land. "It is not likely that there will be bonanza farms in Alaska," he says. "Farming can be made to pay in Alaska under present conditions only when the farmer does most of the work with his own hands. He can secure good wages for his work; he can produce the beef, pork, poultry, eggs, butter, vegetables, and grain which are needed for the support of himself and family, and he can raise enough of a surplus to derive a reasonable income in cash from their sale, if he is located near some town or mining camp. This is the style of farming which will be suitable to Alaska. It is also this style of farming which will make poor men independent and will give to the future State a class of thrifty, industrious, and self-reliant citizens, and these, after all, are the best class of citizens for any State."

Except in the northern parts of Alaska, cattle and horses do well. In Iceland and other countries situated near the Arctic Circle, sheep and swine are extensively raised, and it is believed that sheep and hogs may be raised in central Alaska, where the caribou, moose, bear, and mountain goat are found. The luxuriant grasses furnish excellent grazing for stock. The soil is fertile and the climate is not more severe than in northern Europe, and it is probable that various plants and fruits may be grown successfully. The results of the government's experiments will be watched eagerly.

The reindeer, imported from Siberia and Lapland by Dr. Sheldon Jackson, thrives and propagates rapidly, furnishing the Eskimos an invaluable supply of food and clothing; it is also used for the transportation of goods and to carry the U. S. mails in districts within the Arctic Circle. Reindeer moss grows in abundance throughout the central and northern parts of Alaska, sufficient to feed 10,000,000 reindeer, thus providing for the wants of two or three millions of people. With the growth of the reindeer herds, the migration of great numbers of Scandinavians may be looked for every year. Already more than 100 Norwegians, Lapps, and Finns have been brought to Alaska to help in the reindeer enterprise. "The experiment promises to become one of the great industries of northern Alaska, and will not only afford food for the native population, but transportation for the thousands of whites who have been attracted thither by the discovery of gold."

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BUILDING SCENE AT NOME, ALASKA.

While the lands of Alaska are not so good for agricultural purposes as the prairies of Iowa, it has a better climate and greater natural resources than some parts of Europe lying north of the 56th parallel. Most of the area of Alaska lies between parallels 56 and 75 north latitude. Included within the same parallels are Finland, Lapland, Iceland, the northern half of Russia in Europe, the greater part of Sweden, and nearly the whole of Norway. Northern Europe supports a population of 10,000,000, while Alaska, with a larger area, has only 75,000.

Of the agricultural possibilities of Alaska, in comparison with those of Finland, Professor Georgeson writes:

The development of agriculture in Alaska means the settlement and development of the territory. It means the making of homes, a permanent population, the rapid development of the mineral resources, the creation of wealth, the building of a State. If, on the other hand, no foodstuffs can be produced in Alaska, a large population is impossible, and it could never become a State. We cannot imagine the possibility of sustaining even 100,000 people there if all that they required to support life must be brought from the States a thousand miles distant, and carried hundreds of miles more from the ports of entry to the mining camps and villages in the interior. Under such conditions development of the natural resources must languish. Agriculture is the backbone of prosperity. An adequate food supply is the first essential to the growth of population, to prosperity, to greatness, and if this factor were lacking in Alaska, it would be doomed to remain a scantily populated Territory. States with little or no agriculture make no growth. Look at Nevada, for instance. But it is fortunate for Alaska, and therefore for the whole country, for the growth of any section benefits the whole, that she has agricultural possibilities to an extent which will make the fullest development of her resources practicable. Alaska can furnish homesteads of 320 acres each to 200,000 families. She has abundant resources to support a population of at least 3,000,000 people. Such a population would mean a volume of trade which would yield an immense and permanent income to the coast States. There are people who fear that the development of agriculture would prejudice the mining interests. Nothing could be further from the truth. On the contrary, it would be of the greatest possible help to the mining industry. It would reduce the cost of living, make labor more plentiful, and therefore cheaper, and give rise to better transportation facilities. It would then become possible to work the low-grade mines with profit, and to materially increase the profits of the good mines.

The foregoing statements are borne out by the example of Finland. This little country lies wholly north of the sixtieth parallel. Alaska reaches 6 degrees south of this latitude. Finland

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is less than one-fourth the size of Alaska, and its agricultural area is less than 50,000 square miles; yet in 1898 Finland had a population of over 2,600,000 souls. Agriculture is the chief industry. Only about 300,000 people are city dwellers. They export large quantities of dairy products, live stock, flax, hemp, and considerable grain, and the population has increased some 825,000 in the last twenty-eight years, and this in spite of a very considerable emigration. The conditions in Alaska from an agricultural standpoint are more favorable than those of Finland. We have a larger agricultural area, somewhat warmer summers, and the mines will yield the best possible home market. When the fishing industry of Alaska is developed it will engage the labors of hundreds of thousands of people, who must be fed in large measure from the farms. Alaska has a coast line of 26,000 miles, practically all of which affords splendid fishing ground. The salmon is as yet the only fish which has attracted attention. There are thousands of square miles of cod banks; the enormous halibut grounds have not been touched, and the myriad shoals of herring go by unheeded. An oil and guano factory has been established for some years at Killisnoo, a little village some distance from Sitka, in which the herring is utilized. There is room for fifty such enterprises. The guano sells readily for $30 per ton.

The reason that Alaska has not hitherto been settled by farmers from the States is the difficulty of getting title to land. It is hoped that Congress will soon remove this obstacle by surveying the tillable lands and encouraging their settlement. According to the governor of Alaska, John G. Brady, the future welfare of the district is dependent upon the enactment of liberal laws.

For many years Alaska has been famous for its furs and fisheries. In 1890 the average annual value of fur seals killed was estimated at $1,744,000. Owing to pelagic sealing the fur-seal industry has greatly declined in recent years. At present the catch of fur-seals is 20,000 or less a year, whereas it was formerly 100,000 (from 1871 to 1889). "The total number of seal skins taken on the Pribilof Islands since the purchase of Alaska is about 2,200,000, the value of which is estimated at $35,000,000. The estimated value of other furs taken in Alaska meantime is about 17,000,000, making the results of this industry since the purchase of Alaska about $52,000,000." Of late years the value of other furs has ranged from $500,000 to $600,000 a year. Alaska has many fur-bearing animals—foxes, beavers, minks, sea otters, etc.

The catch of whales is much less than in former years. Many varieties of edible fish—salmon, cod, halibut, herring, black bass, etc., abound in Alaskan waters. The canning industry has grown to large proportions, employing thousands of men. The value of the salmon pack has increased from $60,000 in 1878 to $7,200,000 in 1902. The catch of codfish and other fish amounts to hundreds of thousands of dollars a year. The estimated total value of Alaska's fisheries since 1878 is $60,000,000.

It is only in recent years that gold has been obtained in large quantities in Alaska. In 1873 a gold-quartz vein was found on Silver Bay, ten miles from Sitka, and later discoveries were reported. In 1880 the output of gold in all Alaska was about $6,000. Then the placers of Silver Bow Basin, in southeastern Alaska, were discovered, and in 1881 those of Douglas Island. Here is the famous Alaska-Treadwell mine, whose production of gold now exceeds $1,000,000 a year. There are other valuable mines in the same vicinity. In 1901 the gold production of southeastern Alaska was about $2,545,000.

"The second great mining field is on the Yukon River, far in the interior of Alaska, some parts of it nearly upon the Arctic Circle. The first and most important discoveries were in the Klondike field, on the Upper Yukon in 1896, and explorations and prospecting developed large gold fields along the Yukon west of the Klondike in Alaska and in United States territory; and these were the subjects of great attention during 1897, 1898, 1899, and 1900." Owing to the cost of transport, the mines in the interior have not been developed in many localities. The output of gold in 1902 was about $1,000,000.

The third important gold field of Alaska includes Cape Nome and the adjacent country, where gold was discovered in 1898 on the western coast. Of the Nome district Harrington Emerson writes (in the *Engineering Magazine,* February, 1903):

Far to the northwest lies the Seward Peninsula, suggesting on the map an animal's head snarling across Behring Strait at the nearby Siberia. By rivers and sea it is almost wholly separated from the mainland, and though comprising but 3 per cent. of the area of Alaska, or 20,000 square miles in 600,000, it has yielded for the last three years nearly 75 per cent. of

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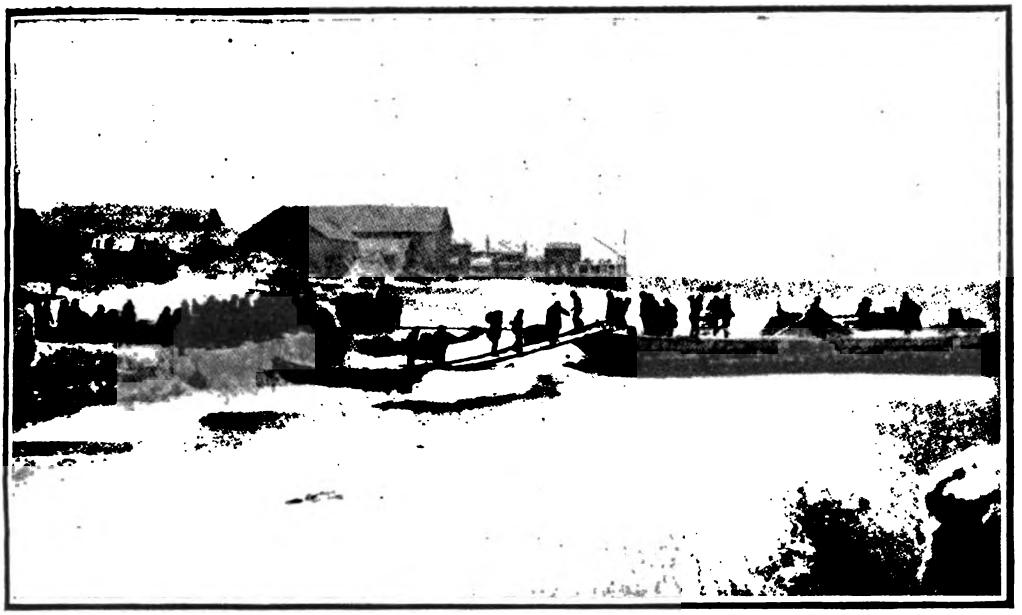

THE LAST LIGHTER LEAVING NOME, ALASKA, FOR THE SEASON.

the gold output, in spite of the increasing yield of the great quartz mines of the southeast, near Juneau. Although the most distant region of North America, 2,700 statute miles from Puget Sound, it owes the rapid exploration and development of its coast to the fact that an all-water route was open to its shores, and that freight still costing a minimum of $70 a ton into Dawson is being landed on the Nome beach for $70 a ton. Passenger rates, higher in the first rush, have fallen to $40 and $50 first-class, and $20 to $25 steerage. Owing to the freedom from hardships, as well as the low cost and shortness of time required, impelled by stories that were indeed true of rich golden beaches, about 25,000 people and their chattels landed on the low sandy spit at Nome and were left to the mercy of surf and storm... In September, 1900, when there were more than 12,000 campers along the beach, the surf rolled in, wrecked most of the shipping in the offing, and destroyed about $1,500,000 of miscellaneous property on the beach, and every year since similar if not so severe disasters have occurred.... The gold yield of the Nome region has hitherto come from the sea beaches and from gulches and beaches at most ten miles from water transportation. Even ten miles has proved almost prohibitive. In winter the placers are not worked and the camps are closed....The services of teams are worth from $20 to $40 a day, and it takes a whole day to haul 1,500 pounds ten miles....So prohibitive were the natural conditions that Mr. Chas. D. Lane, of the Wild Goose Company, considered it wise economy to devote 90 per cent. of the output of certain placer claims to a transportation system, thus reducing cost of exploitation for all future output to 10 per cent. of the yield for transportation alone. The Wild Goose Railroad, seven miles long, from Nome to Anvil Creek, earned its total first cost within thirty days of its opening and shows increasing earnings each year. From Council City, on the Niukluk River, about ninety miles from Nome, Mr. Lane has built a second road, also seven miles long, connecting Council with Ophir Creek, and this road paid for itself in one season.

The total yield of Alaska gold in 1902 is not definitely known, but it has been estimated from $7,800,000 to $9,000,000.

The country also abounds in lead, copper, and silver deposits. It has been predicted that "Alaska will in the next thirty years produce more mineral wealth than the whole of the United States has produced in the thirty years just ended. No one has any conception of the possibilities of that country, to say nothing of its vast, almost incomprehensible extent."

In conclusion, Mr. Emerson makes a suggestive comparison of Alaska and our tropical dependencies: "The export trade from Alaska for four months ending October 31, 1902, exceeded $20,000,000, and was equal to that from Hawaii (for ten months ending the same date), was three times that of the Philippines, and more than double that of Porto Rico. The island dependencies of the United States are densely populated, small in area, and

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fairly well developed. They are in the tropics and unfit for white men and their families. Alaska needs 10,000 miles of railroad, 20,000 miles of wagon roads and telephone lines, and can, as fast as transportation is available, give homes and employment to a population of 10,000,000."

It is said that four railroads extending northerly from near the southern limit of Alaska are projected. We may fairly expect that a large and growing body of immigrants will be attracted thither from our own country as well as from Finland, Sweden, and Norway. The crops of wheat and corn may be a more permanent source of wealth than the mines.

ALCOHOL, Use of.—Less is known of the use of alcohol than of its abuse. For ages it has been turned to account for many mechanical purposes, to say nothing of its medicinal virtues when rightly used. In Germany alcohol has for years been used for heating and illuminating; it is also a success as a motive power for engines.

The experiment of substituting alcohol for oil in engines was lately made in Cuba, with satisfactory results. The engines were built especially for using oil. "It was found that a mixture of four pints of alcohol with two pints of water developed four horsepower for one hour. The explosive gas given off by alcohol can be easily controlled for power purposes, and the experiment gives grounds for the belief that even better results can be obtained with engines built expressly for using it."

The value of this discovery will soon be realized. It will be of great importance in Brazil, the Philippines, and other tropical countries with alcohol-yielding vegetation. Alcohol will come into competition with oil and coal also in northern lands. As a source of industrial energy it may be ranked with waterpower. The cost of producing it may be greatly reduced, making it a cheap substitute for oil and coal.

ARBITRATION has triumphed again in settlement of the building-trade war, which for two months has paralyzed that industry in New York. On July 3, representatives of the Employers' Association and of the labor unions agreed upon the following articles:

"1. There shall be no strikes, sympathetic or otherwise, or lockouts among parties in the agreement in the building trades.

"2. Every difference between employer and unions shall be submitted to a board of arbitration to be hereafter formed of two members of each association in the Employers' Association and two members of each union, parties to the agreement. The term of service of the arbitrators shall be six months.

"3. The walking delegate or business agent shall not be a member of any board of arbitrators.

"4. From this body of general arbitrators not less than four, two from the Employers' Association and two from the employes' union, shall constitute a court of appeal. They shall meet within twenty-four hours when notified to do so by the general secretary.

"5. Differences between unions must be settled by the unions themselves by arbitration or otherwise, but nothing shall interrupt the work of the employer. If any union shall secede it shall be considered to have withdrawn from the agreement and shall be treated as a stranger.

"6. If the unions cannot supply a sufficient number of men for the contractor, there shall be no objection to his employing competent workmen."

AUTHOR.—About the only thing in store for the amateur writer is disappointment. Cruel, stinging disappointment; yet he keeps scribbling away in spite of it, disposing of from one to two manuscripts out of every hundred, and realizing barely enough compensation to defray expense of postage and stationery. Disappointment comes to the amateur as the dollars come to the professional or successful, and of course he soon becomes accustomed to it. Poor amateur! Why doesn't the editor give you the recognition you deserve?

While he is yet going to school he writes rhymes to the girls—silly little rhymes. He calls them poems. The girls, however, are delighted with them, and they call him their "poet." Oh, what joy! what ectasy! what encouragement!

No sooner is he out of school than he writes a verse, redolent of love, which he sends to a local daily. It is published. He sees it in print, his face reddens, and his hair grows. He reads it again and again, with a feeling that he has given the world something great, and his hair grows

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some more. The effect is the same as the first drink. He wants more.

Next, he takes a course of "story-writing" with some press association. Then he begins to set the world on fire—with returned manuscripts. He spends a whole week looking for material for a new story, and then spends another week writing up the story. Then he starts it out on the road to make a round trip. The editor of a first-class magazine holds it three months and then returns it as unavailable, but assures the novice that the return of a manuscript does not imply lack of merit. "What consolation!" thinks the amateur. He tries half a dozen other magazines with the same result. Then he tries every short-story syndicate in existence. But the manuscript comes back. As a last resort he sends it, gratuitously, to the local daily that so kindly published his first verses, satisfied just to see it in print, but there the despicable office cat gets hold of it and the manuscript is no more.

He comes to the conclusion now that the best thing to do is to write a book. Why didn't he think of that in the first place? It is such an easy matter to write a book, in fact some are more easily written than read. But to his surprise he has to pay to have the book published, and in a year finds to more surprise, that he has not realized a cent in return. Then he looks blue, his hair stops growing, and he makes note of the following conclusions:

The editor is the meanest man on earth.

It pays to write for money—from home.

Beware of the first article in print as you would of the first drink.

There are authors who write and write, and yet die poor, though they write right.

If you are about to embark in the literary field, don't embark; there are too many literary barks in the field already.

The men and women who feel it their calling to write literary stuff have done their part when they make an effort, the result of which, the public, to do its part, should read. But the public won't do its part.

There are two kinds of literary-fevers; the reading-fever and the writing-fever. The increase of the latter somewhat encourages the wane of the former—effects a cure, as it were.

Few authors receiving fabulous sums of money for their work are a thing of the past; many authors paying to have their work published are a thing of the present; all authors paying to have their work read, will, no doubt, be a thing of the future.

It is the duty of the satirist to exaggerate, it is the duty of the critic to instruct, at least to offer helpful suggestions along with his faultfinding. These luckless amateur writers need to learn, first of all, that all writing worth perusal represents much knowledge and experience; not all knowledge, by the bye, is book-knowledge, and not all experience has to do with external contact. The writer of literature must, of all men, have a knowledge of life and psychological experience as well. When a youth discovers that he has a fair gift of verbal expression, let him not spend the rest of his days trying to make pretty phrases about nothing, but enrich himself with experience and by work and study. Carlyle has written that nobody ever wrote a line worth reading who was incapable of doing anything besides writing; that you can tell, for instance, how a poet would fight by the way he sings, what kind of blow he would strike by the word he uses.

WILLIAM J. BURTSCHER.

AUTHOR'S MAINSTAY IS MAGAZINES.—Mr. W. D. Howells calls attention, in his latest book, "Literature and Life," to the fact that the magazines are doing more than the book publishers to support American authors. "He (the author) understands perfectly that his reward is in the serial and not in the book; the return from the latter he may count as so much money found in the road—a few hundreds, a very few thousands, at the most, unless he is the author of a historical romance." Mr. Howells continues that, though the rewards of the writers of short stories and serial novels for monthly and weekly magazines and daily newspapers are not such as to enable them to consort with brokers, bankers, and trust officials, they can live in what Poe would have considered affluence, and do so through work infinitely inferior to that of Poe. The incentive to create strong, original work is no greater now than it was in the time of Poe and Hawthorne, but for the clever writer of wholesome, conventional fiction the periodical press affords a more lucrative field than there has ever been before.

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BOOKS

Labor and the Church.

BY

WALLACE RICE.

THROUGHOUT the thinking world in America there is coming to be more and more realization of the fact that employers and employed are growing further and further apart, that capital and labor are growing to regard one another as mutually antagonistic, and that the rise of class feeling, developing as a necessary result of these things, is hostile to the best interests of the community as a whole. Thinking men are therefore setting themselves down to serious study of the conditions which have brought about what, after all, seems to be rather a misunderstanding than any essential antagonism, and to devising methods for bringing about a reconciliation. Among these the representatives of many churches are taking a prominent place, rightly holding that their position as preachers and teachers permits them to act as informants to both sides in this serious and protracted controversy.

As an aid to the position of the better informed among the clergy in this regard, it is coming to be understood by the workingmen themselves that the underlying philosophy of all the remedies they propose for the amelioration of their present condition is essentially ethical. Whatever the ideal the social philosophers hold out, whether socialistic, communistic, or anarchistic, it implies, if not a higher standard of morality, at least a better realization of that standard in practice than the world has yet attained. Some go even beyond this, for instance an English labor leader quoted by Bishop Potter as saying, "An improvement must take place in human nature before any wide extension of state or municipal employment of labor would be desirable. . . . Common control without the motive of self-interest can only satisfactorily take the place of sectional control for private gain when public opinion has reached a higher level of morality, and the inducement to discharge one's duties in a manly fashion and from a point of honor is sufficiently strong as an incentive to industry."

This being accepted as true, it is small wonder if those making open profession of Christianity and holding it to be the only working system of morals before the world believe themselves called upon to state that with them and their teachings rests the hope of the laborer and that they alone can bring mankind to the point where all ideals are capable of realization.

Three important books have recently been published which assume, either openly or tacitly, this attitude. These are "The Citizen in His Relation to the Industrial Situation," by the Rt. Rev. Henry Codman Potter; "Socialism and Labor, and Other Arguments," by the Rt. Rev. John Lancaster Spalding, and "The Workingman and Social Problems," by the Rev. Charles Stelzle. It is interesting to note that the three authors represent respectively the Church of England, the Church of Rome, and the Church of Scotland, all established in European nations, two of the authors being among the best known of American prelates, while Mr. Stelzle is at the present time traveling in the interest of the Presbyterian Board of Home Missions, seeking to bring workingmen into closer relations with the Church.

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While the two authors of episcopal rank have had the training usual with men of their position, it is worth while observing that Mr. Stelzle earned the money for his theological training by working at the bench as a machinist.

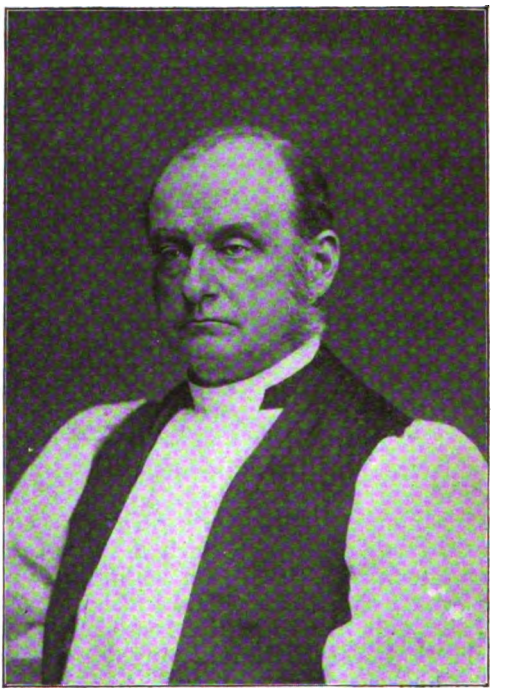
Mr. John Graham Brooks had occasion to observe that ignorance of the other's aims was a leading factor in the misunderstandings arising between employers and employed, though he felt upon the whole that employees had a better knowledge of what their masters were seeking to do than the masters of the men's aims in agitation.

This ignorance is pleasantly lacking in these three books, and its absence enables the authors to speak with an authority too often lacking in works of the kind—and too often absent from ecclesiastical statements at the present time, many clergymen in and out of the pulpit seeming rather to apologize for being right than to condemn those at variance with them for being wrong.

The matter in Bishop Potter's admirable book was delivered at Yale under the fund established by Mr. William E. Dodge for procuring the better "understanding of the duties of Christian citizenship and a sense of personal responsibility for the performance of those duties," especially "among the educated men of the United States." A more efficient lecturer than Bishop Potter it would be hard to find in the circumstances. By birth, education, and office naturally sympathetic with the men of wealth, his personal investigations into the condition of the poorer classes has given him wide knowledge of their aims, so that his attitude is fairly judicial through his work.

This is divided into six chapters, representing as many lectures, and the very titles of these are instructive, as follows: "The Industrial Situation," "The Citizen and the Working Man," "The Citizen and the Capitalist," "The Citizen and the Consumer," "The Citizen and the Corporation," and "The Citizen and the State." Within these limits he goes far toward defining the duties of a man of full intelligence and disinterested motives at the present time, so far as the industrial situation is concerned. He finds blame on both sides, as when he quotes a letter from a large employer of labor saying, "'As to strikes between operatives and employers, for wages, hours of labor, etc., one of our most prominent silk manufacturers said to me the other day, "You may set it down as a rule that such strikes are, in nearly every case, the manufacturers' own fault."'"

Bishop Potter in his initial lecture makes the ordinary confusion between collectivism and anarchism, seeking to identify the two—and that under the vulgar definition of anarchy which assumes



BISHOP HENRY C. POTTER.

it to be nihilism instead of a philosophical statement of individualism. This is the more unfortunate, for it is made in an attempt to prove the socialists wrong in their contention "that science knows of no such thing as an individual character, apart from social surroundings," a view condemned unsparingly by anarchistic writers.

Bishop Potter lays every possible stress on personal character, yet he is not as far from agreement with those who lay such

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stress on the effects of environment as he himself supposes. After having committed himself pretty thoroughly to the position that man can only be raised by influences working from the inside, subjectively, he is still free to form the following estimate of the slave in the ancient Roman empire and to contrast with it the modern workman, thus: "They [the slaves] were free from care for the present or anxiety for the future; and it is doubtful whether the average of human happiness among them was not often as high as, if not sometimes higher than, that of the average life of the toiler or artisan in the foul and overcrowded homes of the poor in our great cities to-day. The uncertainties of the wage-earner; the fierce strife for bread of the modern miner or agricultural laborer,—these were miseries out of which what we call militarism, whether in the state or in the church,—and its spirit existed with equal absolutism in both,—substantially delivered those who for centuries so widely, if not always contentedly, rested under it."

In another place the poor are visited with censure because of the enormous amount of intoxicating liquor consumed by them, but this is tempered by the following statement made later: "This at least is certain; there must be, if you are to have, in connection with any task on earth, an effective workman, time for something else, and more, than work and eating and sleeping. Such a life sooner or later makes of a man an imbecile or a brute. Such a life drives a man to drink as straight and surely, oftentimes, as if you or I, when his day's work was done, led him with our own hands to the rum-shop, where he snatched the one little fragment of change and excitement which his whole life affords. And for such a life, just in so far as he connives at it, or tolerates it, or is partaker of the cheapened fruits of it, without protest or denunciation, the consumer is responsible." The latter part of this paragraph is an admirable example of the sort of moral responsibility Bishop Potter seeks to bring home to the public.

There is even more scorn for the doctrine of *laissez faire*—quite as much as any socialist shows—as for socialism itself, and there is a comprehension of the ends and aims of trades-unionists that deserves the widest publicity. "I presume," Bishop Potter says, "I should express not inaccurately the mental attitude of great multitudes of people in regard to these organizations [trade unions] if I said that they regard them with disfavor, and watch their growth and influence with dread. A greater blunder in estimating them could not well be made! . . . A leading element of menace in such organizations consists in the fact, for which we, not they who are of them, are responsible, that we have cared so little to understand them; that we have striven so little to sympathize with them; and that, worst of all, our personal attitude toward them has been so remote and frigid, if not distinctly hostile. It has been my great privilege—I account it one of the chiefest of my life—to come into frequent and intimate contact with men who represented trades-unions in great variety, which were inclusive of individuals who ranged, in their culture and attainments, all the way from the humblest day-laborer to the most skilled craftsman, artisan, and all but artist; and I have found, in all of them, qualities in which, far more than in any written covenants with their employers, lie the highest hopes of the future."

With this comprehension of the workman goes an estimate of the capitalist equally profound and searching. In pursuance of his general purpose to awaken the conscience of the educated man, Bishop Potter addresses the following question to the capitalist:

"1. Where did such wealth as you are in control of come from? How was it made? Whom did the making of it rob or wrong? What claim have you upon the respect of honest men, or to the companionship of decent people, until you can answer these questions?

"2. And then, next to these, comes the equally pertinent question, which it should be the office of a wholesome and rightly constituted society, but most of all of that divine society which we call the kingdom of God in the world, to press: 'What are you going to do with it?'"

Bishop Spalding's book is not entirely devoted to labor questions, as the title shows, but within its narrower limits it attests the same knowledge of the situation as Bishop Potter's, as when the Roman prelate places the following personal

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estimate upon the industrial situation at this time:

"Machinery made production on a large scale possible, and threw the whole business into the hands of capitalists, while laborers are left with nothing but their ability to work, which they are forced to sell at whatever price it will bring. The capitalist's one aim is to amass wealth, and he buys human labor just as he buys machinery or raw material, at the lowest rate at which it can be obtained. It is either denied that the question of wages has an ethical aspect, or it is maintained that the competition among capitalists themselves, which under the present system of production is inevitable, compels employers to ignore considerations of equity. Hence it comes to be held that whatever increases profits is right. The hours of labor are prolonged, the sexes are intermingled, children are put to work in factories, sanitary laws are violated; wares are made in excess of demand; and in consequence of the resulting glut of the markets, wages are still further lowered or work is stopped; and the laborers, whether they continue to work or whether they strike, or are forced into idleness, are threatened with physical and moral ruin."

RT. REV. JOHN L. SPALDING.

Granting the accuracy of this picture, who can fail to agree with Bishop Spalding when he says, "This brief sketch of the history and nature of industrialism is sufficient to account for the existence of the various socialistic theories and movements of the present day?" But, lest it be thought that here lies some endorsement of the socialistic programme, let us hasten to add this wise observation:

"Social development depends upon laws which legislation can modify only to a limited extent, and a prerequisite to all effective and desirable social transformation is a corresponding change in the character of both the masses and their rulers and employers. Now, alterations in the character of a people are the result of slow processes, carried on through successive generations, and hence it is a mistake to suppose that a change in the machinery of government will suddenly produce an equivalent change in the thought and conduct of men."

In another place may be read: "The selfishness which, under the *régime* of competitive capitalism, makes so many employers of labor heartless and tyrannical, would assert itself also in the new order; for a change of government is like a change of clothes, it leaves the man what he was." Then follows the following noble plea for comprehension and tolerance, the more marked in coming from a member of the hierarchy in the one Church that is engaged in fighting with all its might the irreligious and purely secular features of socialism:

"Though we cannot accept the fundamental principles of Socialism or Collectivism as true, and though we are persuaded that society cannot be successfully established upon them as a basis, there are none the less bonds of sympathy between us and the Socialists. The desire, which in the case of many of them is doubtless earnest and sincere, to come to the relief of the poor, to find some means by which their lot may be made less miserable, springs from a divine impulse. It is Christian and human; and the anti-religious spirit of modern Socialism comes from an

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REV. CHARLES STELZLE.

unphilosophic and unhistoric view of the forces which create civilization and give promise of a better future."

Unrestricted competition, in Bishop Spalding's estimation, is to be condemned when it leads to the evils now existent in the American state. After dwelling briefly upon the utterly selfish aspect it is only too likely to assume, the right reverend author goes on to justify the existence of trades unions, thus: "The consciousness that if they [the workmen] do not protect and defend themselves they will be ground by the wheels of a vast machine or reduced to a condition little better than that of slaves, compels them to unite lest they be deprived of the common rights of man. In ancient times laborers were slaves; it is not long ago since multitudes of them in our own country were slaves; and however the fact be disguised, the natural tendency of greed, of the love and pursuit of material things as the chief good of life, is to deaden the sense of justice and humanity, to make the strong, the men of ability, feel that they have the right to do whatever they are able to do."

The Rev. Mr. Stelzle's book contains a quotation from Gladstone which might have been the reason for Mr. Dodge's establishment of the course of lectures so brilliantly opened by Bishop Potter, for he said, "I painfully reflect that in almost every great political controversy of the last fifty years the leisured classes, the educated classes, the wealthy classes, the titled classes, have been in the wrong;" and Mr. Stelzle adds, "The common people, the toilers, the men of uncommon sense—to these we owe a debt of gratitude."

A workingman himself, it is in this book that readers will find knowledge at first hand. To him the saloon is not a place of unmitigated horror, but an institution filling a place in the social life of thousands for which no adequate substitute has yet been found. For if there be no substitute, in Mr. Stelzle's judgment, until the home is made to fill every need—"We can never place a greater barrier between the workingman and the saloon than that of the heart," is his striking way of phrasing it. It is with the same comprehension that he discusses such questions as shop ethics and labor leaders. He admits freely that there is much to be desired in both these important questions, but the excerpt he gleans from a labor journal shows, even in its irony, how difficult the position is to fill. This is the standard:

"They [the leaders of labor] must be men of ability, good speakers, and indefatigable workers. They must be diplomatic, tactful, good-tempered, and of excellent presence. Hours of labor shall be from early morning until late at night, and Sunday work will be quite frequent. They must be so constituted as to take no offense at the army of critics who will belittle every effort, and philosophic enough to rebuild what their critics may thoughtlessly destroy. Their wages will not be commensurate to their ability or to the work they have to perform; nevertheless, they must submit to be 'touched' or unmercifully scored for their lack of generosity. They must be brave as lions to the enemies of trades unionism, but meek as lambs to the unionists who want to abuse them. Persistency, integrity, and unerring judgment must be among their many qualifications." This, of course, is from the workman's point of view. It will be found interesting to have an ideal labor leader sketched by the average employer,

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and then contrast the picture with that of the man who has just made it.

The saving grace of common sense is characteristic of much of Mr. Stelzle's writing. He does not think socialism has made any great impression on American artisans yet, though he admits the efficiency of its propaganda. He does not think Christianity and socialism have much in common, though freely granting that one may "be a socialist and a Christian at the same time." His manner of stating the great difference between them, already noted, is wittily put, thus:

"Christianity works from within outward. Socialism works from without inward. Christianity believes in character first, knowing that good environment will follow. Socialism believes in environment first, hoping that good character will result. When I told this to a labor leader recently, he remarked: 'Haven't we tried the *character first* idea long enough?' I asked him if he had ever tried it. He confessed that he had not. He saw the point and changed the subject."

Perhaps the most interesting portion of "The Workingman and Social Problems" is the chapter in which its author tells of the answers received to the following queries, sent to two hundred of the leading exponents of trades unionism in this country:

"First. What is the chief fault that workingmen find with the church?

"Second. What, in your opinion, takes the place of the church in the life of the average workingman?

"Third. How do they regard Jesus Christ?

"Fourth. What, in your opinion, should engage the activities of the church?"

Mr. Stelzle notes "that workingmen are tremendously in earnest about this matter. They offered no apology. They gave no excuses. With hardly an exception they gave reasons for their non-attendance upon church services." The answers are given in composite form, and they are, without exception, apposite. They are too long to permit more than a glance at their tenor, and deserve reading in detail, so filled are they with information. In general, they show the firm conviction on the part of the laboring people that Jesus was one of themselves, that they have His sympathy in their struggles, and that the church has failed chiefly in not teaching His own words, without theological gloss or addition. They find the church rather the home of the capitalist than the laborer, they do not think its services interesting or informing, they dislike denominational quibbling, and they wish the capitalist to put its precepts into daily practice before they give it their adherence. But the chief point the book makes is that the working people as a whole, whether they go to church or not, are tremendously interested in the church, and would gladly welcome any alliance that could be made with it.

The three clergymen, speaking from their several points of view, are yet unanimous in holding that the church, as the possessor of an efficient code of morals, holds the key to the industrial situation and that all differences between capital and labor can be made to disappear in the illumination of Christ's teachings. Mr. Stelzle alone of the three calls attention to the practical alienation of the workingman from the church of to-day, and is therefore the only one concerned, so far as his book goes, in devising means for reconciling the differences between them. But the two prelates, realizing that the church in order to work out its own ends must reach the working people, are of the same mind beyond a doubt. This being true, it seems to be a safe prophecy that the time has come when the Christian world feels its responsibility in the matter of the American workman and will undertake to discharge it as a duty owed to the country, to itself, and to its Founder.

BRITISH PHYSIQUE DETERIORATING.—During the Boer war the humiliating fact was brought home to the British nation that many of the yeomen were unfit for military service. Recruits by thousands were rejected because of their bad physical condition, and of those accepted a large number were found wofully wanting when they reached South Africa. Some of them had heart disease, some varicose veins, and some had poor eyesight and other defects. These "disease-ridden rapscallions" were no match for the hardy burghers.

According to recent reports of the Inspector-General of Recruiting in the British army, "the physique of the men enlisted is more and more unsatisfactory—

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the recruits accepted for service are smaller, lighter, and narrower-chested" than they used to be. Of 87,609 men who were medically examined last year, 28,221 were rejected as unfit. The Report on Recruiting for 1902 contains this significant statement: "The one subject which causes anxiety in the future as regards recruiting is the gradual deterioration of the physique of the working classes, from whom the bulk of the recruits must always be drawn."

The deterioration in the national physique is such as to engage the attention of the British government, and public men have dwelt on the need of a remedy. A writer in the *Nineteenth Century and After,* for May, has presented an imposing array of facts and figures that should set sober Britons to thinking. He compares British soldiers with German and French, to the advantage of the latter. As a remedy he urges the importance of compulsory military and naval training, as is the custom in Europe. "While our national physique shows many signs of deterioration," he remarks, "the physique of Continental nations has improved and is improving since the adoption of universal military service gave to the whole manhood of those countries a sound physical training and discipline of body and mind."

The causes of this physical deterioration are not far to seek. The economic conditions in Great Britain the past century have been such as to bring great masses of the population into cities and towns, to the physical detriment of many. Farm laborers and artisans are apt to drift into vicious practices when they come to the city with its manifold temptations to evil-doing. John Burns attributes the national degeneracy chiefly to drink. The age is doubtless partly to blame for it. In the days before railways and telegraphs men led more leisurely lives, and parents imparted to their offspring a stronger constitution. Then the men of England were noticeably taller and stronger than now.

The Toronto *Globe* (June 23) expresses the view that the writer in the *Nineteenth Century,* Mr. George F. Shee, is one-sided in some of his conclusions. The *Globe* objects to his comparison of the British with Continental armies. "In the one case you have the flower of the nation forced into the army, and in the other you have to make your choice from a class that is by no means the flower of the nation, even physically."

"It may readily be admitted," continues the *Globe,* "that the man who passes his life in a factory at the loom, or still worse, in chemical works, where the very air is laden with death, is scarcely likely to be so robust as the peasant who plows the land and does the hedging and ditching. Is not this unavoidable, however? Much may be done by making surroundings of the former as natural and sanitary as possible, and a great deal has been done in this direction, although the good results may not yet be visible. Short hours should give more time for the play on the village green, to which is credited the superior physique of the Englishmen of other days, and better wages and good and abundant food will, in our opinion, fully make up for any loss that has been occasioned by the transference from the country to the town."

On one phase of the discussion a valuable sidelight is thrown by a contributor to the *Westminster Review* (March, 1903), who maintains that the physique of schoolboys at Rugby and Marlborough is actually improving. Measurements of boys in 1874 and 1901 show that the youth of the gentry class is "a better animal than ever." This comparison called forth the following suggestive comment by a writer in the May *Westminster*: "His researches, however, only included boys of the upper-middle class—a small proportion—who are well provided with the means of physical training and with regard to whom he says, 'this result clearly demonstrates the value of gymnastics to physical development.' The figures given in the article quoted certainly prove that boys of this class are taller, heavier, and physically better to-day than of yore, but it is unfortunate that the author's investigations did not include the boys and girls of the middle and lower-class schools; for with regard to the children of the working classes, and of the proletariat, it is no exaggeration to say that their physical condition is terrible." He holds, therefore, that the physical training of school children of all classes is a national duty. Otherwise, Great Britain will continue to lack soldiers that are up to the mark,

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CANADA, AMERICANIZATION OF.—Recent consular reports tell of the influx of American capitalists into Canada. Owing to the bright industrial outlook in the Dominion, capital has been attracted thither. Many financiers of the United States are investing in banks, mines, and manufacturing enterprises. Syndicates and companies have been formed to develop the Dominion's immense resources. So writes Consul-General John L. Bittinger, from Montreal, in *Consular Reports,* June, 1903.

Not only have miners and capitalists gone to Canada, but farmers by the thousands are flocking into the wheat regions of Manitoba and the Northwest Territories. Hitherto vast districts of central and northwestern Canada have been unsettled for the lack of transportation. Now railways are building and steamship lines are contemplated, with the view of bringing Canada into closer touch with the commercial world. As a result, immigrants are coming as never before. The arrivals for the month of April numbered 21,254, of whom 9,400 were British, 7,058 from the United States, and 4,796 from Europe. During the first four months of 1903 the number of immigrants was 40,672, in comparison with 22,482 for a like period of 1902.

For a decade or more there has been a steady stream of American settlers Canadaward, and they are not mere transients —they have gone to stay. The number of emigrants from the United States in 1902 was estimated from 50,000 to 80,000, most of them substantial citizens.

Various reasons have been assigned for this remarkable exodus of our countrymen. According to the Toronto *Globe,* the American "invasion" is due to the fact that the average yield of wheat in North Dakota is thirteen bushels to the acre, while that of Manitoba is twenty-five bushels. The *Empire Review* (April, 1903) attributes it partly to the trusts and high prices prevailing in the States. Another explanation is that the price of land is high in the Western States and low in the Dominion. So men have sold their little farms in Iowa and bought larger farms in the Canadian northwest. It goes without saying that they will be successful farmers in their new homes. They are for the most part good specimens of American manhood. It is also to be remembered that many of the settlers are men of Canadian descent; the fathers came to the United States years ago, and now the sons are seeking homes in the land of their ancestors.

In some parts where the American emigrants are going the crops are excellent, and plenty of land is to be had at $2, $3, and $4 an acre. There is room for millions more. The land area of Canada is more than 3,000,000 square miles, with a population of 5,500,000, or less than two persons to the square mile. In May, it is said that one American syndicate, headed by Colonel A. D. Davidson of Duluth, bought 3,000,000 acres in Manitoba, for $12,000,000. The stream of immigration is also flowing into the province of Assiniboia, north of Montana. It is a fact that farmers and ranchers are making money there and they are buying more lands. A correspondent writing from Moose Jaw (June 2) says: "The man with five sections, over three thousand acres, is frequently met, and since the recent sale of school lands some farmers boast of from seven to ten sections, for possibly a quarter of which they have still to pay." Land has increased rapidly in value the past twelve months. The steam plow is used and the farmers use up-to-date methods.

The climate is no great obstacle to men and women who are used to roughing it. It is vigorous, but bracing. The cold is endurable because the atmosphere is clear and dry. The summers are pleasant, the average temperature being 70° in July.

According to recent crop reports, Manitoba's yield of wheat this year is estimated at 85,000,000 bushels, against 65,000,000 bushels last year. The area under wheat is 2,442,873 acres, as compared with 2,039,940 acres in 1902. This shows the rapid advance of settlement. The outlook for the grain crops is as good. Ontario is also a splendid farming country, and other sections of the Dominion have enormous possibilities, not only in agriculture but in mining and the manufacture of woodpulp.

This means, without doubt, the continuation of Canada's epoch of prosperity and the continued influx of Americans. So far the Canadian labor market has not been congested by the tide of immigration. One effect of the Americanization

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of Canada will be the strengthening of the ties between the Dominion and the States. It will make for the growth of sentiment in favor of reciprocity between the two countries. It is too far off to predict what the influence of the American contingent may be politically. It may have its influence on the question of annexation. The Canadians are apparently not worried much over the matter. They are bending their efforts toward improving the transportation system of the Dominion. The Toronto *Globe* urges the building of a government railroad from Quebec to Winnipeg.

In time there will be a rivalry between East and West Canada, due to the presence of so many Americans in the western half of the Dominion. If Canada were annexed to the United States, as some argue, it would fill up more rapidly, for, although the language is the same and the laws are similar, many Americans are averse to giving up their citizenship.

CANCER, INCREASE OF.—There are two groups of human diseases that have long been known as the causes of a large number of deaths—the zymotic (typhoid fever, smallpox, malaria, etc.) and tuberculous (consumption, leprosy, meningitis, etc.) These maladies are responsible for the majority of cases of premature death, especially among the young of civilized lands. Within the last thirty years attention has been directed to the great increase of deaths due to malignant growths, such as cancers and tumors. These diseases form a third group, because of the considerable number of persons of advanced age (thirty-five years or over) who fall a prey to them. Cancer is said to be "a disease of degeneracy, the frequency of which increases as age advances."

That there has been a marked increase of cancer in late years, is the view of Dr. Alfred Wolff, who treats the subject in the *Nineteenth Century and After* for June. The matter is one demanding further investigation, and it is to be hoped that scientists and medical men will gather statistics and other data bearing on this class of diseases. To know the causes of a malady is to be forearmed against it to some extent. May not this be true of cancer, as well as of the two other groups of diseases, which are classed as preventable?

Dr. Wolff's researches relate for the most part to the death rate from cancer in the Old World. In England he found the annual total of deaths from cancer had increased 4,500 in 1900 as compared with 1890. The proportion of cancer deaths to 100 deaths from all causes he found to be 4.5 or one to twenty-two. Among persons thirty-five years and over the proportion is one to twelve. In Prussia, Holland and Norway the cancer deaths increased thirty per cent. during the decade from 1890 to 1900. According to the figures that he collected from the best available sources, the death rate from cancer is lowest in Italy (52 per 100,000 living in 1900), and highest in Switzerland (132 per 100,000 living in 1900).

The proportion in the United States is less than the average in Europe, being 60 per 100,000 living in 1900. The U. S. Census of 1900 reports 29,475 cancer deaths out of a total of 1,039,094 deaths from all causes that year, or one in thirty-five. Owing to the high mortality of infants, the prevalence of cancer among mature persons is much greater than these figures seem to indicate. According to the U. S. Census Report for 1890, the number of cancer deaths that year was 18,536 out of a total of 875,521, or one in forty-seven. This is an alarming increase, more than sixty per cent. since 1890. In Chicago the deaths from cancer in 1901 were 1,003, out of a total of 24,406; in 1902, the aggregate was 1,074 out of a total of 26,455—an increase from 4.4 per cent. to 4.6 per cent. in one year.

Dr. Wolff concludes that cancer is endemic in certain localities, such as "well-watered districts covered thickly with woods." He holds that the consumption of beer has a potent influence in leading to the development of the disease. He thinks there is strong evidence of the contagious character of cancer—it may be "propagated either by direct contagion, or by infection through water, or through cider made with infected water." As to beer, the probability is that the specific cause of cancer enters the drink through the water or malt in it.

COLLEGE GRADUATE IN BUSINESS, OUTLOOK FOR THE.—Time and again the utility of college education has been discussed, and varying views have been expressed as to whether it is a help or a

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hindrance in getting on in the world. The prevailing opinion seems to be that book learning is a damage to a man in the business world. It is claimed by practical men that the college graduate is conceited and unteachable, he has his own notions of how things should be done, he wants easy, clean work. He is, therefore, not wanted in a commercial establishment, and the noncollegian is preferred as help.

This is in brief the thesis of R. T. Crane, a Chicago manufacturer, who has published a booklet on "The Utility of an Academic or Classical Education for Young Men Who Have to Earn Their Own Living and Who Expect to Pursue a Commercial Life." He contends that higher learning is a handicap to such men. He holds that it is a waste of time for youths to go even to the high school. "The whole tendency of the so-called higher education," he says, "is to puff the young man up with vanity, causing him to look with contempt upon labor." Mr. Crane proceeded in an inductive way to get data on the subject, he wrote letters to college presidents, to college graduates, and to the heads of business houses and industrial concerns. Their replies afforded the material for his book. He publishes many of their letters, but he is unwilling to accept them at their face value. In a word, he thinks the college men are too often prejudiced witnesses. While some employers say a good word for the graduate, he observes that in practice they avoid the college man.

There is undoubtedly much of truth in Mr. Crane's presentation of the case. "Employers of business help," says a graduate who answered 450 ads and made innumerable applications in person for employment without success, "will not take a man who is nearly 25 years of age as a beginner without business experience. They want young fellows in their teens, and so specify in their ads; of course they can get plenty of them. They are cheaper, will last longer, and are more easily reduced to mere cogs in the business machine. A college man knows too many things."

It must be remembered that the organization of business concerns in these days is such that much of the work is routine, it does not call for a high order of intellectual ability, and the pay is small (ranging from one to two dollars a day). The responsible positions are comparatively few, for which the remuneration is from three to five dollars a day. The boys are gradually advanced, if they develop special aptitude for a certain line of work, but in the meantime they have had to toil early and late for starvation or rather probation wages.

A college man does not care to go through such a mill. He may temporarily take a job paying from nine to twelve dollars a week, but he has his eye on something better, and sooner or later the firm loses him. Such being the situation, it is easy to understand why the college man is not wanted in mercantile houses. One of the head men in a Chicago wholesale establishment says: "There has never been a college graduate at work in our forces. As far as expedient, we begin with boys at the age of 16 and train them gradually for the field for which they show most efficiency. We obtain better results, three times out of four, from a man who has gained his knowledge in our own house."

The college man realizes this and objects to becoming a cog in a business machine, "a mere automatic drudge." Such positions are not easily obtainable by him, and in his estimation they are not desirable. The petty clerkship is not for him—he is not content to be a bookkeeper at a monthly stipend of fifty dollars or less. Clerical work is no longer the snap that it was once considered to be—it is not so remunerative as driving an ice-wagon. The college man is willing to leave such employment, which may be described as semi-peonage, to young women and beardless youths. He is ambitious to be something more—he wants a position where he can grow intellectually. It is a reflection on our mercantile and industrial life that it tends to reduce men to automata.

Mr. Crane's conclusions are correct, so far as they apply. They do not, however, cover the ground. There are responsible positions requiring a disciplined mind and ample knowledge. The ideal man of commerce must know the world, and if he can read and write two or three modern languages, his accomplishment is turned to account in correspondence, or he may be sent abroad as a foreign representative of the firm. Commercial life is broaden-

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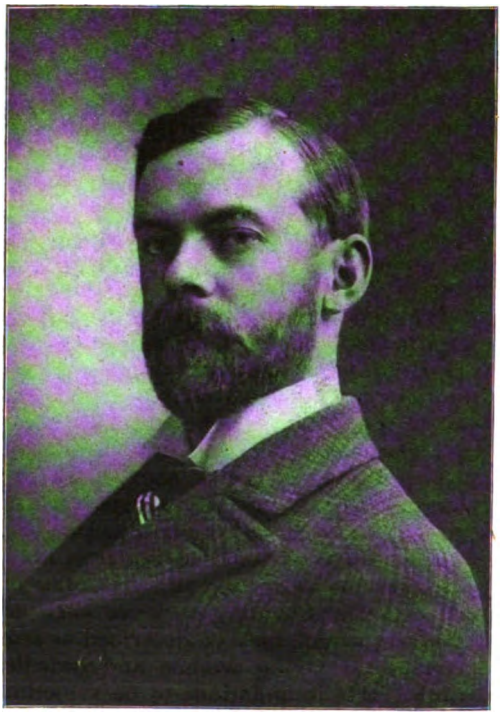
ing every year, and the man having linguistic ability or technical training finds a work to do, and it is better paid than clerical work or bookkeeping. The microscopist is in demand and the bacteriologist is called for; business enterprises have frequent need, too, for the services of the civil engineer, the geologist, the mining expert, and the electrician.

According to James B. Dill, the famous corporation lawyer of New York, "the corporation movement instead of crowding men out has opened for them new fields of usefulness and has increased the financial returns for intelligent, concentrated effort." His task is to originate new paths by which the corporation may make progress. The corporation executive needs young men of brains and collegiate training. In his address to the graduates of the University of Minnesota (June 5), Mr. Dill said: "A college training is a contributing element to business success. Direction of great enterprises calls for the services of educated men and a highly trained intelligence is required to cope with the difficulties of meeting competition, solving new problems and resisting the attacks of rivals. A man must be a good generalist to become a good specialist, and for this the best preparation is a well-spent college course. . . . . The corporation executive is well aware that no better way to improve the corporation exists than by improving the personnel of the corporation's employees of every grade. Therefore it is that, as far as practicable, college men are sought for."



EDWIN G. DEXTER.

Of course, there are plenty of college graduates who are not first-class men. The high-grade man in college usually remains a high-grade man in active life, and his education is not necessarily a handicap to him in the race for pecuniary success. He finds or makes a field of activity and honor. On the other hand, some men have not the making of a career in them—they belong to the class of defectives who never amount to anything. But those who win honors in college are apt to achieve something in after life. The high-grade man may not be a money-maker, but he is supposed to be a man of influence, one who has "achieved more than an ordinary degree of success in the chosen calling."

An investigation of a different sort from Mr. Crane's has been made by Professor Edwin G. Dexter, of the University of Illinois. He traced the records of a large number of men belonging to the college Greek letter fraternity, Phi Beta Kappa, and he found that a considerable proportion of them gained prominence in the various professions and vocations—actor, artist, author, editor, business man, clergyman, college professor, educator, congressman, lawyer, lecturer, librarian, musician, physician, scientist, soldier, sailor, railroad official, U. S. official, engineer, and financier. The upper stratum of college life consists of the members in Phi Beta Kappa. This is a criterion that no one will question. The successful men in after life usually are chosen for honorable mention in the annual biographical cyclopedia entitled "Who's Who in America." This book contains sketches of notable living Americans, including 11,551 names in the edition of 1901; that is, one American out of some 7,000 is singled out because he has left his mark on the world. The statistics gathered by Professor Dexter (*Popular Science Monthly*, March, 1903) point to the conclusion that honor-men in college are honor-men in "the bivouac of

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life." Not only does the Phi Beta Kappa man win the distinctions that men prize, his chances of pecuniary success are nearly three times as great as those of his classmates. In other words, academic success often means business success and professional distinction.

It is worthy of note that of the 11,551 persons whose biographies appear in "Who's Who" for 1901, nearly half (5,486) had been to college and 4,521 were graduates. It should be added that 1,791 furnished no educational data. Presumably some of these had attended institutions of higher education. Of those who have merely common or public school education there are 808. These figures have their significance and "speak most convincingly of the value of education as a factor in success." While the average collegian may not have a brilliant future before him, he still has his uses.

COREY, WILLIAM ELLIS.—On June 30, 1903, it was announced that W. E. Corey, the president of the Carnegie Steel Company at Pittsburgh, had been appointed assistant to Charles M. Schwab, president of the United States Steel Corporation. Owing to the ill-health of Mr. Schwab, the active duties of his position will be performed by Mr. Corey.

The new head of the steel trust is a man of forceful personality, who has worked his way up from a humble position paying a few hundred dollars a year to one having a salary of $1,000,000. From the age of sixteen he has been engaged in the steel business, first in the laboratory of the Carnegie works at Pittsburgh, in 1882, then in the order department of the Homestead Steel Works. "His work and his brains kept telling, and when he was 21 he was appointed superintendent of the plate mill and open hearth departments. His next step was to the superintendency of the armor plate department. He had been continuing his studies in the laboratory and these now bore practical fruit. To him was due the introduction of a new reforging process, which greatly increases the ballistic resistance and is highly valued by ordnance engineers." Later he succeeded Schwab as general superintendent of the Homestead works and through sheer capacity he was promoted to the presidency of the Carnegie Steel Company.

W. E. COREY.

"Thirty-seven years of age, forceful, able, shrewd, hardworking, democratic, genial, W. E. Corey stands for the highest type of the American of deeds. His own success he owes to his own powers. He rose because he raised himself. The story of his life is story of a series of achievements. He is one of those men who do things."

It is reported that Mr. Corey expects to remain at the head of the Carnegie Company, devoting a part of his time to that concern and a part of his time to the affairs of the U. S. Steel Corporation in New York.

He was born in Braddock, Pa., May 4, 1866, and is therefore in the prime of life. His father was a coal merchant of modest means. He was educated in the Braddock common schools and afterward studied in a business college of Pittsburgh. He is of a kindly disposition and popular in the mill towns where he has lived. It is declared on good authority that he and Mr. Schwab are warm friends and that the latter recommended Corey's appointment as his successor.

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Crafts at the Art Institute of Chicago.

BY

BESSIE BENNETT,
Designer and Craftsworker.

IN order to meet the growing demand for work done by individuals, not machines, work made by hand, the original creation of the maker and not the servile copy of work which has withstood the criticism of the ages, the Art Institute of Chicago has established a Department of Applied Design. In order to be eligible for admission to this new department of the school, a candidate must already have had some art training in design, or must study design in connection with the crafts work. Professor L. J. Millet, who has the new department in charge, has associated with himself two able specialists, to carry on the first two crafts established. Mr. W. J. Meyer has an enthusiastic and large class of metal workers to instruct, three nights a week, in the practical and mechanical means of producing metal work upon æsthetic lines. The course includes hammering, embossing, saw piercing, soldering, polishing, fitting, engraving, repoussé work, chiseling, and enameling, and in jewelry, the setting of stones, filigree work, etc. Although this class has but just been established, it can be plainly seen with what comprehension and directness a student works out results, who has "the two elements of artistic life, its impulse and its technical ability, united and acting together." To further quote Denman Ross, who almost seems to be predicting the second Renaissance, "All the elements of the artistic life are here, but they are separated so that they can not

POTTERY MADE AT THE ART INSTITUTE OF CHICAGO.

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JEWELRY MADE AT THE ART INSTITUTE OF CHICAGO.

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POTTERY MADE AT THE ART INSTITUTE OF CHICAGO.

act together. What we have to do is to bring them together. It means simply that we must bring the teaching of art, the teaching of design, into connection with technical training."

The pottery class, under Mr. J. T. Webb, is of a few months' older growth than the metal-work class, but wisely taking into account the great difficulties to be overcome, very little attempt at decoration has as yet been made. The study of forms, how to throw them on the wheel or turn them on the lathe, methods of baking the clay, and application of the glaze, whether all over or in splashed (drip) fashion: these are the topics for preliminary consideration and practice. In color glazes some of the results are most creditable; and when the brilliant yellows, low-toned browns, dull greens, and rich blues are well displayed on an attractive form, the effects vary upwards from beauty interest, through charm, to positive preciousness as of human wrought jewels.

To keep above a suspicion of faddism, actually to unite crafts work with true æsthetic training, to show earnest and practical results, there is no organization so well fitted as a well-established art school. As each successful effort along art-crafts lines will be of vital interest in the future to the great multitude of wage earners, it is interesting and gratifying to know that the West is to be encouraged in its virile, creative artistry by this equally great and popular institution of Chicago.

EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION, MEETING OF THE NATIONAL.—The forty-second annual convention of the National Educational Association was held in Boston July 6-11, 1903. It was a monumental convention in point of size, being by far the largest gathering of American teachers that ever met. The number registered, including educators from near-by towns, was estimated at 35,000. The notable meetings of other years sink in comparison. The attendance at Chicago in 1887 was a record-breaker in the history of the Association. The convention attendance of that year was 9,115, with a State membership of 1,750. Other places having large gatherings were: Denver (1895), 11,297; Buffalo (1896), 9,072; Washington (1898), 10,533; Los Ange-

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les (1899), 13,656; Detroit (1901), 10,-182; Minneapolis (1902), 10,350. The membership of 1902 comprised 7,135 associate members (those who join only for the year they attend), 3,180 life members, and 35 life directors.

The program for the five days (July 6-10 inclusive) included forty-one meetings, with 294 names of those assigned to speak. In addition, many took part in the discussion of papers. The mornings were devoted to special sessions of the sixteen departments, the afternoons to sight-seeing, and the evenings to general sessions where large educational problems were discussed.

Some idea of the magnitude of the convention may be obtained from the wide range of interests represented. Besides the gatherings of the National Council, there were meetings of the following departments: Kindergarten, Elementary, Secondary, Higher, Normal, Manual Training, Art, Music, Business, Child Study, Physical Training, Science Instruction, School Administration, Library Department, Special Education, and Indian Education. The week was also crowded with social events, banquets, receptions, lectures, concerts and excursions to famous places, Faneuil Hall, Old South Meeting House, Bunker Hill, Shaw Memorial, etc. Excellent arrangements were made to accommodate and entertain the teachers.

At Mechanics' Hall, where the general sessions were held, there was a crush on Monday evening (July 6), 10,000 delegates being present. The welcome of the Commonwealth was extended by Governor John L. Bates. The greetings of the city were tendered by Patrick A. Collins, Mayor of Boston, and President Henry S. Pritchett spoke on behalf of the educational institutions of Greater Boston. Albert G. Lane of Chicago and Hon. W. T. Harris felicitously responded. The two chief features of the evening were the president's address, "The New Definition of the Cultivated Man," by Charles W. Eliot of Harvard, and "The Present Peril of Liberal Education," by Andrew F. West of Princeton.

C. W. ELIOT, LL. D.

ALBEBT G. LANE,

According to President Eliot, the idea of cultivation underwent substantial changes in the last century. "There are two principal differences," he said, "between the present ideal and that which prevailed at the beginning of the nineteenth century. The horizon of the human intellect has widened wonderfully during the past one hundred years, and the scientific method of inquiry has been the means of that widening." The most paramount force of the modern spirit is science. The four elements of culture dwelt on by Dr. Eliot are: (1) Character, as developed by the "stream of the world," the life of to-day rather than that of the past; (2) language, the capacity to express oneself with accuracy and elegance, also the ability to read and appreciate modern literatures as well as ancient; (3) the store of knowledge, the

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mass of facts and ideas that the centuries have bequeathed to us, a part of which the cultivated man must master, selecting such part or parts which "enable him, with his individual personal qualities, to deal best and sympathize best with nature and with other human beings;" (4) imagination, the faculty exercised by man when creating or building a new thing. "The imagination is the greatest of human powers, no matter in what field it works—in art or literature, in mechanical invention, in science, government, commerce or religion, and the training of the imagination is, therefore, far the most important part of education. . . . . It is one lesson of the nineteenth century, then, that in every field of human knowledge the constructive imagination finds play in literature, in history, in theology, in anthropology, and in the whole field of physical and biological research. . . . . It results from this brief survey that the elements and means of cultivation are much more numerous than they used to be; so that it is not wise to say of any one acquisition or faculty—with it cultivation becomes possible, without it, impossible. . . . . The moral elements of the new education are so strong that the new forms of culture are likely to prove themselves quite as productive of morality, high-mindedness and idealism as the old."

Dean West, of the graduate school of Princeton University, found the spirit of liberal education in commercialism, in illiteracy (meaning ignorance of good literature), love of ease, and confusion in college counsels. "The college has proved its right to live," he said. "To preserve, maintain and energize it to its highest capacity for good, to prune its excesses, strengthen its weak places, and supply its needs, is, therefore, the bounden duty of those who care for the best interests of our nation." Among the common defects of our American civilization he held that some are especially perilous to our college education. "The chief one," he thought, "is commercialism, the feverish pursuit of what 'pays,' as the one end of life. The instinct for the useful is being perverted and exalted above the love of knowledge as a chief end. And why? Because what is wanted is something immediately, obviously, almost mercenarily useful. . . . . Another peril is a companion and natural follower of commercialism, namely, illiteracy. Not in the meaning of that word in the census tables, but in the meaning of ignorance of good literature. 'No man can serve books and Mammon,' said Richard de Bury long ago. Is it not a fact that the majority of college students to-day are not familiar with the commonplaces of literary information and the standard books of history, poetry, and so on? Do they know that greatest book of our tongue, the English Bible, as their fathers did? What have so many of them been reading? The newspapers, of course, and fiction—not always the better fiction. As between books and the short stories in magazines, how few read the former! . . . . . Another peril comes from the students themselves. It is the disposition to do the pleasant rather than the hard thing, even when the hard thing happens to be the best thing. This is most common among those whose main interest in college life is social. It is also fostered by the general absorption in athletics, though it is not so much the athletes who are affected—for they are at least used to a vigorous discipline in things physical—as it is the mass of onlookers who attend the games and waste so much time discussing them. This social and athletic environment, with all its undeniable and, I believe, indispensable good, is just now doing much harm to the intellectual life of students. Because it is unduly exaggerated, it is operating powerfully to disperse the student's energies in a miscellany of things outside his studies. . . . . A few words must suffice to set forth another peril which especially besets us at this time: It is the peril of confusion in college counsels. It has been inevitable because of the extreme diversity of educational conditions in our land and because of conflicting theories of college training. . . . . What parents, teachers and students need to know as definitely as possible is precisely what a given college stands for. Uncertainty here breeds loss of confidence in liberal education. It is to be hoped that most of the colleges will be able to stand together. If they do, I hope and believe they will stand for the conviction that there are college studies essential for all who take the college course. That it is the completion

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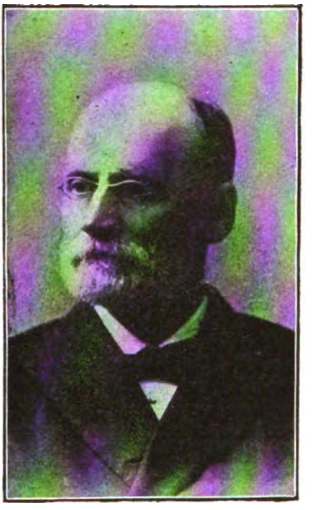
of these which opens to the student the best all-round view of the knowledge most serviceable for his whole after life, and that the ideas of discipline and duty in studies as well as in conduct underlie any real development of the one true freedom of the human spirit."

At the remaining general sessions severable valuable addresses were delivered, but lack of space forbids any attempt to give summaries. On Tuesday evening Professor Calvin M. Woodward and President Pritchett were the speakers on "Manual, Trade and Technical Education." On Wednesday evening Principals Bright of Chicago and Clapp of Boston spoke on "School Gardens, City School Yards, and the Surroundings of Rural Schools." The topics of Thursday evening were: "The Teaching of Civics and Good Citizenship in the Public Schools;" "The Justification of City Expenditure on Parks and Parkways—Material for Public Education;" "The Nature Study Movement." The topic for Friday evening was: "Education in the Southern States."

At the Monday sessions of the National Council there were addresses on "The Voluntary Element in Education," by Professor Charles de Garmo of Cornell, "Saving of Time in Elementary and Secondary Education," by Superintendent Thomas M. Balliet of Springfield, Mass., and "The Educational Progress of the Year," by William D. Hyde, president of Bowdoin College. The principal addresses of Tuesday's session of the Council were: "Contributions of Modern Education to Religion," by Professor George A. Coe of Northwestern University; "The Influence of Religious Education on the Motives of Conduct," by Rev. Edward A. Pace of the Catholic University, Washington, D. C.; and "The Separation of the Church from the School Supported by Public Taxes," by W. T. Harris, Commissioner of Education. Dr. W. R. Harper was succeeded as president by Frank A. Fitzpatrick, the Massachusetts agent of the American Book Company. A committee was appointed to urge a separate bureau of education. Another committee will investigate the economic status of grade teachers, as urged by Miss Margaret A. Haley of Chicago. Because of the increased cost of living, it is held that the salaries of teachers should be raised. It was stated that "the average salary for men teachers is $322, and for women less than $270."

At Tuesday's session of the department of Elementary Education there were three important addresses: "The Lock-Step in the Public Schools," by Supt. William J. Shearer of Elizabeth, N. J.; "Nature Study True to Life," by Professor Clifton F. Hodge of Clark University, and "The Child's Favorite Subject in the Elementary Curriculum," by Earl Barnes of Philadelphia.

In the department of Higher Education the topic of Tuesday morning was "The Length of the Baccalaureate Course



W. T. HARRIS, LL. D.
U. S. Commissioner of Education.

and the Preparation for the Professional Schools," and the chief speakers were Presidents Eliot, Harper and Butler. President Butler, who strongly opposes shortening the college course, said:

> The baccalaureate, or college course of study of the liberal arts and sciences, should be preserved at all hazards as an essential part of our educational organization and as distinctively American and a very powerful factor in the upbuilding of the nation's culture. The college course is in serious danger by reason of the fact that the secondary school is reaching up into its domain on the one hand and the professional school is reaching down into it on the other. To preserve the college is to fix and enforce a standard of admission which can be met normally by a combined elementary and secondary school course of not more than ten years well spent, and to keep out of the baccalaureate

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JOHN W. COOK.
New President National Educational Association.

course purely professional subjects pursued for professional ends by professional methods. This course should be entered upon at 17, or in some cases at 16. Eighteen is too late for the normal boy. For the boy who enters college at 17, and looks forward to a career as scholar, as teacher or as man of affairs, four years is ordinarily not too long a time to spend in liberal studies.

On Wednesday the questions discussed were as follows: "Shall the University Concern Itself More Directly with the Morals and Manners of Its Students? If so, by What Methods and Devices? Should There Be in Every College and University a Medical Visitor Who Should Also Be an Adviser for Students on all Matters Relating to Health and Disease?" The latter query was answered in the affirmative by President Harris of Amherst College, who said:

College men, whatever their faults and wrongdoings, will not tell lies. This virtue, which is associated with the English gentleman, is as distinctively the virtue of the American gentleman and scholar. The ideal of every student is the ideal of a gentleman, of an honorable, generous, courteous man. The college should concern itself with the morals and manners of students, but not by specific methods and devices. The paternal system of government is outgrown. Work itself is the best moral power. Stiff requirement of study, week in and week out, daily tasks, constant attainments and steady intellectual progress are mighty moral influences.

The members of the department of Secondary Education listened to some able addresses, viz.: "Tendencies as to the Enlargement of the Secondary Field," by Principal Reuben P. Halleck, Louisville, Ky.; "The Teaching of Argumentative Discourse in High Schools," by Professor George P. Baker of Harvard; and "Co-education in the High School," by President G. Stanley Hall, of Clark University. Dr. Hall argued strongly against the mixing of the sexes in high schools and claimed that there are fewer marriages among university graduates because of co-education. He said, in part:

The sexes diverge as we go up the scale of civilization, being most alike in savages and increasingly less alike in mind and body among the higher races. Boys and girls are separated from each other now at this age not only among savages, but among most cultured races. In the home this same separation at this age is more or less marked. The school and all institutions should push sex distinction to its utmost. Make boys more manly and girls more womanly. Do not forget that motherhood is a very different thing from fatherhood. Neither sex should set copies or patterns for the other. Incidentally co-education has been carried to a greater extreme in this country than anywhere else, until it threatens to interfere with the natural differentiations everywhere seen in home and society.

While I would not abolish co-education, I would modify it. While each sex develops some of its best qualities in the presence of the other and while each is helped there are also offset dangers and injuries. While in collegiate and university grades young people can work together, there is something unnatural and dangerous during the earliest teens when the girl must suppress and conceal her instincts at times which suggest stepping aside to let lord nature do its beautiful work. There should be some reverent exemption from the hard struggle of existing in the world or from mental strife in the school.

One bad effect in girls is seen in all statistical studies which show that their ideals are not found among noble women, but in men. About eighteen out of 100 college girls even go so far as to state that they would rather be men than women, and more than one-half choose male ideals. This suggests to a recent writer that unless there was a change we would soon have a female sex without a female character.

The sessions of the department of Manual Training were chiefly occupied with papers and discussions on trade schools and art instruction. The department of Business Education took up the subjects

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of commercial education and commercial geography. The department of School Study considered such themes as "School Hygiene" and "Child Study in Relation to Secondary Education." In the Kindergarten department the main topics were: "The Extension of the Kindergarten Ideal into Other Fields of Education" and "The Kindergarten and the Community." In the department of Indian Education the principal papers related to citizenship and character building. In the rooms adjoining the hall where the sessions were held there were exhibits of Indian basketry and other handicrafts, showing the skill of boys and girls in Indian schools. Other sections had interesting programs.

Officers elected for the ensuing year: President, Professor John W. Cook, of the Northern Illinois Normal, DeKalb, Ill.; treasurer, M'Henry Rhoades, Kentucky. Because of the Louisiana Exposition, which will attract teachers in great numbers next year, there will probably be no meeting of the Association in 1904, except a formal gathering to hear reports.

The annual meeting of the National Federation of Teachers was held in connection with the convention of the Educational Association. Officers elected: President, Margaret A. Haley, Chicago; secretary, Annette Rosenthal, Milwaukee.

At the closing session of the Educational Association President Butler, of Columbia University, read the report of the committee on resolutions, which was called a declaration of principles. Congress is urged to make sufficient appropriations to enable the Commissioner of Education to extend the scope of his bureau, making it an independent administrative department. Congress should also provide more public schools for Indian Territory. The resolutions are as follows:

"1. The United States bureau of education has amply proved its usefulness to the nation. Its publications are standard works of reference for school officers and teachers everywhere. It should be made an independent administrative department, such as were the departments of agriculture and of labor before their elevation to cabinet rank. Sufficient appropriations should be made by the Congress to enable the commissioner of education to extend the scope and add to the usefulness of his work.

"2. The condition of affairs in the Indian Territory, where fully three-quarters of the population are reported as being without schools for their children, demands the immediate attention of the Congress. Provision should be speedily made by which the people of the Indian Territory will have power to establish and carry on a system of public schools so that all classes of citizens in the Indian Territory may have the educational opportunities which are enjoyed by their fellow citizens in other parts of the country.

"3. Teaching in the public schools will not be a suitably attractive and permanent career, nor will it command as much of the ability of the country as it should until the teachers are properly compensated and are assured of an undisturbed tenure during efficiency and good behavior. A large part of the teachers' reward must always be the pleasure in the character and quality of work done; but the money compensation of the teacher should be sufficient to maintain an appropriate standard of living. Legislative measures to give support to these principles deserve the approval of the press and the people.

"4. The true source of the strength of any system of public education lies in the regard of the people whom it immediately serves, and in their willingness to make sacrifices for it. For this reason a large share of the cost of maintaining public schools should be borne by a local tax laid by the county or the town in which the schools are. State aid is to be regarded as supplementary to, and not a substitute for, local taxation for school purposes. In many parts of the United States a large increase in the amount of the local tax now voted for school purposes, or the levying of such a tax where none now exists, is a pressing need, if there are to be better schools and better teachers.

"5. The highest ethical standards of conduct and of speech should be insisted upon among teachers. It is not becoming that commercialism or self-seeking should shape their actions, or that intemperance should mark their utterances. A code of professional conduct clearly understood and rigorously enforced by public opinion is being slowly developed, and will, doubtless, one day control all teachers worthy of the name.

"6. It is important that school buildings and school grounds should be planned and decorated so as to serve as effective agencies for educating not only the children, but the people as well, in matters of taste. The school is becoming more and more a community center, and its larger opportunities impose new obligations. School buildings should be attractive as well as healthful, and the adjoining grounds should be laid out and planned with appropriateness and beauty.

"7. Disregard for law and for its established modes of procedure is as serious a danger as can menace a democracy. The restraint of passion by respect for law is a distinguishing mark of civilized beings. To throw off that restraint whether by appeals to brutal instincts or by specious pleas for a law of nature which is superior to the laws of man, is to revert to barbarism. It is the duty of the schools so to lay the foundations of character in the young that they will grow up with a reverence for the majesty of the law. Any system of school discipline which disregards this obligation is harmful to the child and dangerous to the state."

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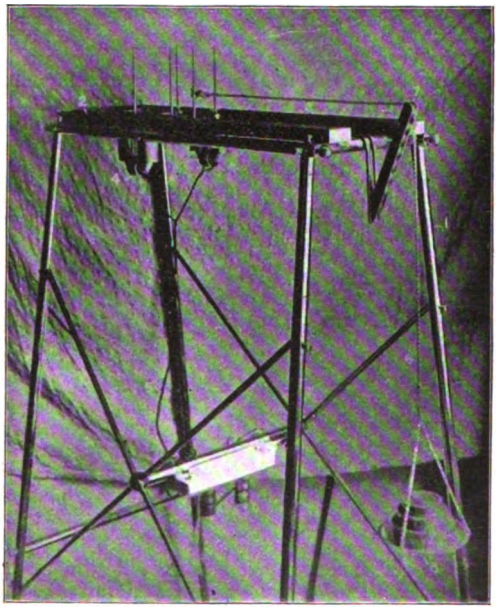
The Electro-Magnetic Railway.

BY

HENRY H. NORRIS, M. E.,

Assistant Professor of Electrical Engineering, Cornell University.

MODERN business and pleasure-seeking demand rapid transit, and the high speed of to-day will undoubtedly be slow to-morrow. It is difficult to predict just how far this development will go, but at any rate it lends interest to any project which will enable us to get from point to point more quickly than we do at present. In these columns several high speed experiments have been described, notably the Zossen high speed trials of last year, which were successful up to the limits of the track, and the monorail system recently installed in Germany and from which great things are expected. In the Zossen experiments the orthodox road-bed was employed and the speed was developed by the application of high-powered motors to the cars. The monorail system, on the other hand, is a radical departure from current practice, as the car is suspended "a-straddle" an elevated rail somewhat as a donkey's pack is arranged. The latest plan which has been somewhat widely heralded in the non-technical press, bears the name of the title of this article and involves a novel application of some well-known principles in a most ingenious way. Whether or not this is a commercially feasible project depends upon a number of conditions not touched upon in the published descriptions.



ELECTRO-MAGNETIC APPARATUS.
This shows the force required to move an empty cage.

So far, the apparatus has been tried only in a very crude way in the laboratory, and rather sweeping conclusions have been drawn from a very simple set of experiments. In brief the plan consists in the elimination of rolling and axle friction in a railway car by supporting all or part of its weight by means of electro-magnets. The laboratory apparatus upon which the preliminary experiments have been performed is illustrated in the accompanying figures. This consists of a cage sliding upon a pair of rails and carrying underneath a pair of electro-magnets which are attracted to the under side of the rails when energized by means of an electric current. A tractive effort is given to the cage by means of a set of weights attached to one end of a chain the other end of which is fastened to the car. The chain passes over a pulley so that the weights hang vertically and apply a force to the cage in a horizontal direction. The weights therefore replace the steam engine or electric motor which ordinarily supplies this tractive force, or "draw-bar pull." The experiments, upon which the deductions have been based, consisted in measuring the vertical force needed to maintain motion of the cage when various weights were loaded upon it. Obviously the least tractive force would be needed when the upward force due to the magnets exactly

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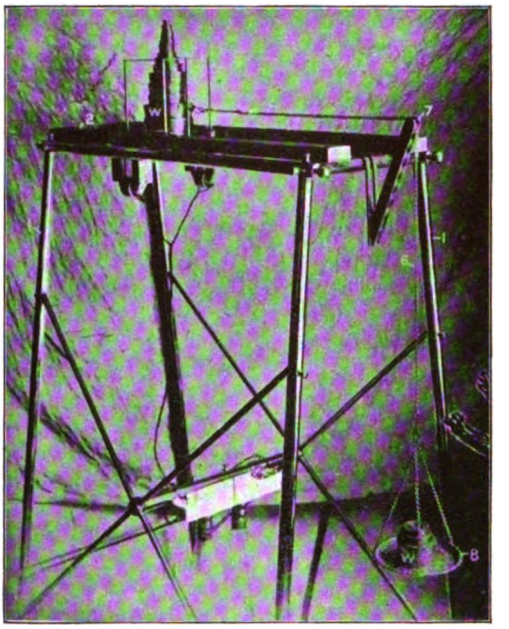
balances the weight of cage and load. Under these conditions there would, at slow speeds, be very little friction to overcome. From this experiment the inventor, Professor A. C. Albertson, concludes that very high speeds are attainable by the application of this principle to a specially designed railway-car operating upon a track designed to meet the requirements.

Such an outfit would include preferably an elevated rail structure, the rails being planned to carry small flanged wheels above and to furnish broad surfaces for the magnetic attraction below. These rails would be supported by their webs so as to leave the upper and lower surfaces absolutely clear. The cars would roll on very small wheels when not altogether supported by the magnets which are to be carried upon brackets projecting downward from the bottom of the car, the poles clearing the lower surface of the rail by a very slight amount. Poles and rail surface would be lubricated to reduce friction if these came into contact. Altogether the problem is a fascinating one and will repay study for its scientific interest entirely aside from commercial considerations. It is another interesting example of the application of the ubiquitous electro-magnet to a new field of work.



ELECTRO-MAGNETIC APPARATUS.
This shows that a smaller force moves cage when loaded.

The first principle involved is the law of attraction of the electro-magnet. The inventor claims that with 500 amperes at 110 volts, the power needed for 1,000 incandescent lamps, he can support a weight of 60 tons. This he could certainly do under laboratory conditions. When applied to high-speed road requirements, however, certain important difficulties will be encountered. These difficulties follow from the laws of the magnetic circuit, which laws are briefly these: First, as to the pulling power of a magnet, it may be said that this pull depends upon the area of the magnet pole and upon the strength of the magnetic field. The pull is directly proportional to the first and proportional to the square of the second. Second, the amount of pull which can be secured from a given magnet is limited, the iron becomes "saturated" with magnetism. Before saturation, however, it is possible to obtain from 50 to 100 pounds pull per square inch of surface. Third, the source of the attractive force of the magnet is the electric current which surrounds it, and the amount of this "magneto-motive force" is proportional to the current and to the number of turns surrounding the magnet core. The amount of pull which may be expected from a given amount of current and a given number of turns will depend upon the distance which separates the pole of the magnet from the surface which it attracts and upon the quality and dimensions of the core of the magnet, including the area of the pole. From these laws it is evident that the chief difficulty to be encountered is the variation of the distance between the pole of the magnet and the under surface of the rail. That there must be a considerable variation of this distance follows from the mechanical impossibility of making a structure of this kind absolutely uniform and from the resilience of the structure between the magnets and the car body. With the great forces to be employed, the magnets will be "sprung" considerably toward the rail surface and this will necessitate the use of a large "air-gap" between the poles and the rail. The variation in the air-gap due to the reason mentioned will introduce a very great variation in the pull of the magnet with resulting irregularity of operation of the car. In case the magnet should come into contact with the rail as it inevitably

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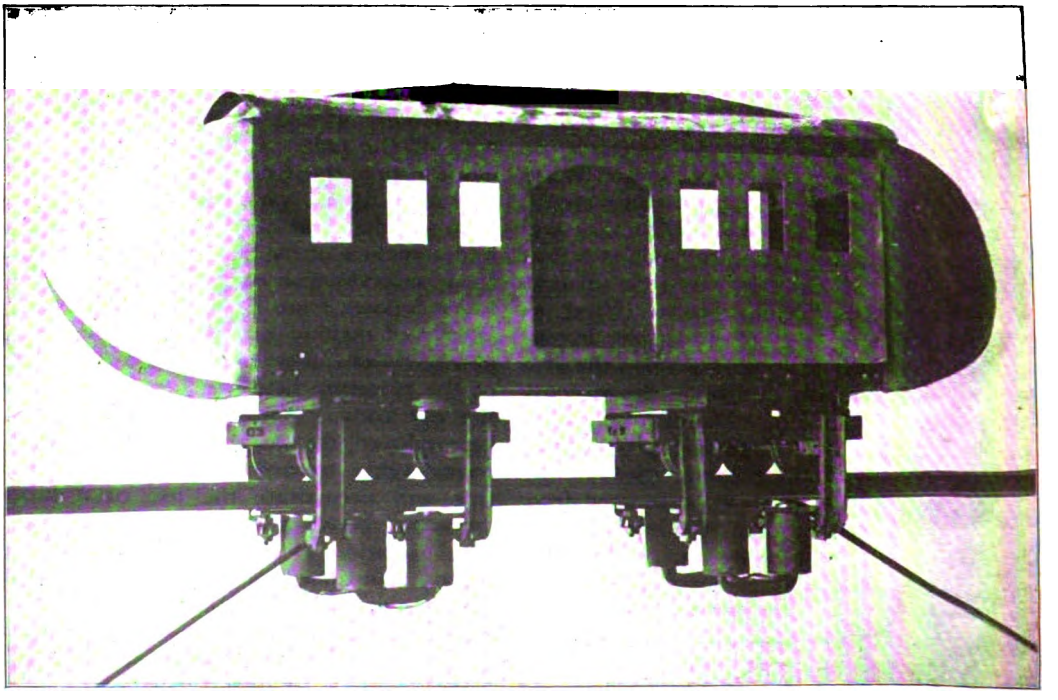
will at times, the resulting friction would be enormous in spite of any lubrication that can be furnished; for, with the air gap gone, the pull increases greatly up to the point of saturation of the iron. To apply a lubricant in sufficient quantity to allay this friction would be impracticable. Suppose, on the other hand, that at the high speeds proposed (up to 300 miles per hour) the tractive force of the magnets should fail, as it will undoubtedly do at times. The car would then, of course, come down upon the wheels with its full weight. The wheels would surely fail under this duty, for at this speed they would be revolving at a rate which is almost inconceivable and far beyond the possibilities of lubrication, at least under the present knowledge of the subject.

So far we have considered matters relating to the support of the train. But the features of propelling power and resistance must also be taken into account. Very properly the inventor claims that with rolling and axle friction reduced, less propelling power will be needed, and that the required propelling power added to the magnetic requirements will be greatly less than with present systems of traction. Just at this point, however, several items of importance must be borne in mind. Foremost of these is the fact that the propelling force must get into the car through the wheel tread and for this purpose enough weight must be allowed to rest on the rails to give sufficient adhesion. This weight will in itself produce a great amount of friction, particularly at the high speeds employed; and, should less than the required weight be allowed, the wheels will slip with the consequent production of wear and heat and with the loss of speed. In the second place, it is a well-known fact that cars tend to leave the rails at high speed, particularly on curves. This tendency is assisted by the flanges of the wheels which tend to "crawl" up the ball of the rail. Some of the recent high speed cars have had to be heavily weighted by the incorporation of steel rails into their floors for the very purpose of holding them down. If this is true at speeds of about 60 miles per hour, it will be much worse at higher speeds, and consequently there will be a constant tendency to pull the magnets up against the base of the rail.

The matter of air resistance at these great speeds will also be a most serious problem. It is difficult to predict just



MODEL OF CAR SHOWING WHEELS ABOVE RAIL AND ELECTRO-MAGNETS BELOW IT.

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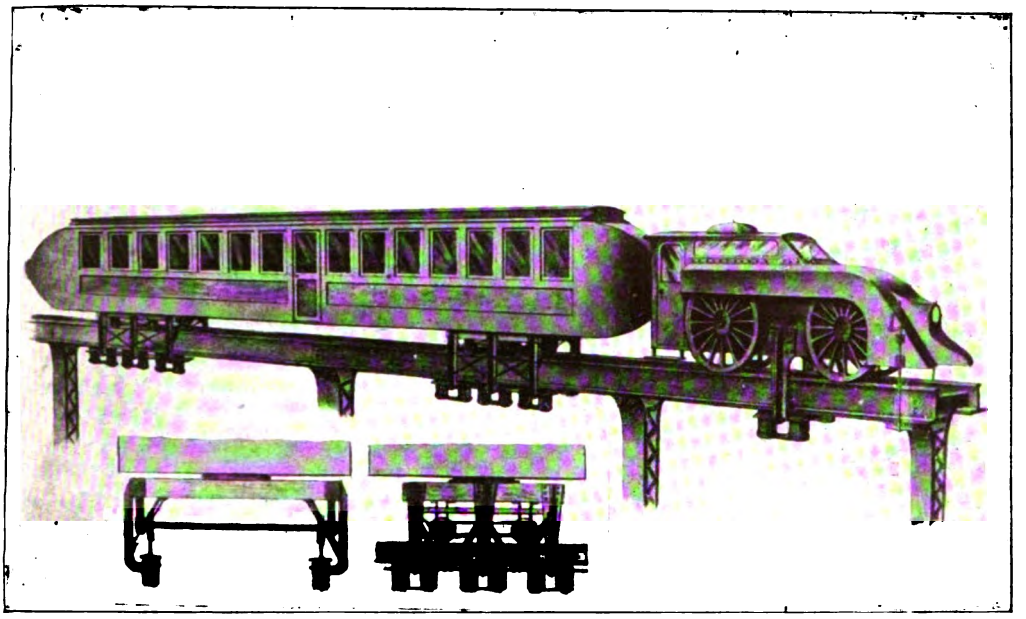

MODEL OF ELECTRO-MAGNETIC LOCOMOTIVE AND CAR.

what this will amount to, as it will depend much upon the shape of the cars. Tests made by various authorities upon trains of from 200 to 400 tons weight, and at speeds between 40 and 70 miles per hour, show that the draw-bar pull needed varies from about 13 pounds per ton at the low speed to 19 pounds per ton at the high speed, the difference of 6 pounds per ton being due to a change in speed of 30 miles per hour. From this it is evident that there is a large increase in friction with increase in speed, a large part of this being due to windage. It would not be wise to apply the laws deduced from these moderate speeds to the very high ones, but evidently it will require considerable power to drive even the magnetically supported train.

There is yet another source of resistance which might be easily overlooked in a casual survey of this problem, but which will undoubtedly amount to a considerable proportion of the total loss. This will be due to the cutting of the rail by the magnetism at the high speed proposed. As is well known, when magnetism is made to cut across an electrical conductor, there is set up therein an electrical pressure which in turn will generate an electric current when the circuit is complete. A familiar lecture experiment will make this plain. A sheet of copper dropped between the poles of a powerful magnet is arrested as if it had met a great mechanical resistance. As a matter of fact the resistance comes from the reaction of the electric currents generated in the sheet of copper upon the magnetism produced by the magnet. Just so it will be with the magnetic railway. In this case it is the magnet which moves and the electric conductor which remains stationary, but the effect is precisely the same. A very rough calculation shows that a large number of horse power will be absorbed in heating the rails through this cause.

This exhibit of difficulties seems overwhelming; but, if there is real merit in the invention, it can be shown by the operation of a full-sized working model which will operate under exactly commercial conditions. It is difficult to predict the outcome of such an experiment, but without it the device cannot be pronounced a success or a failure. The plan is based upon well-known and established fundamental principles, it is ingenious in conception and the details have been worked out well for the small model. It is radically different from anything that has been a commercial success, hence it must be viewed rather skeptically until data of operation under commercial conditions have been obtained.

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FLIES.—Of all the agents for spreading typhoid fever, none is more potent than the common housefly. Its proboscis, feet, thighs, and wings are all good carriers of disease germs. Of course it is impossible to exterminate the breed, but were the fact just stated generally known, the *musca domestica* could be reduced to a negligible quantity. It is imperative, for the sake of the general health, that the attention of the public be drawn to this subject. The countryman, sitting at his own dinner-table, is in danger lest flies alight on his food and infect it with the typhoid germs they have brought from the manure of the stables; the city man at luncheon in a restaurant is in danger lest flies have brought typhoid germs to the food from garbage boxes or from the filth of the streets and gutters.

This principal insect agent in the spread of typhoid is incredibly prolific. The number of eggs laid by each female fly averages 120. For these to hatch and mature, it needs only a period of ten days. Thus, under favorable circumstances, the offspring in a summer of one housefly that has survived the winter is something appalling. *Musca domestica* is particularly numerous in country houses in the vicinity of stables in which horses are kept. This is because horse manure is the preferred food of the larvæ of houseflies. Therefore, where an uncared-for heap of stable dirt stands near a house flies are sure to swarm. Their number is limited only by opportunities for breeding. They swarm in kitchen and dining-rooms where food supplies are exposed. They are found abundantly also in drains. Thus a drain and a deposit, with perhaps an unsuspected, undeveloped case of typhoid fever in the neighborhood, insure the presence of multitudes of contaminated flies, which, by alighting on the food supplies, can spread the disease to healthy persons. That the disease was so spread to a shocking extent in the summer of 1898 under the ordinary conditions of the army concentration camps, the army typhoid fever commission has clearly demonstrated. The flies and other insects swarmed in the sinks and drains, got their feet covered with the typhoid germs, and then settled on the food in the mess tents, with disastrous results to the soldiers.

This fact was the convicting evidence in a case called some months ago in Philadelphia. This was the case of Gabriel Upton of Germantown against the city; which was tried in Common Pleas Court No. 4. The city had been constructing a sewer, and lacking funds to complete the work, had turned the sewage into an open creek that ran through Upton's grounds. From points above, the filth settled on the edge of the creek on his place, and though nearly two hundred feet from the house, the stench was at times unbearable. Higher up, along the course of the sewer a case of typhoid fever had occurred. The waste from the infected house was allowed to drift down the sewer to the open creek. Swarms of flies settled on the waste and afterwards entered Upton's house. Finally, Upton was taken ill with typhoid fever, and was confined to his house for ten weeks. When he recovered, he set about securing evidence for a damage suit against the city. His array of witnesses was of the strongest kind. It was shown that there was a previous case of typhoid fever, and that four cases occurred lower down the course of the sewer in consequence. Dr. Henry Skinner, entomologist at the Academy of Natural Sciences, was among the experts called. His citation of the case of insect-contamination in the army mess-tents during the Spanish War bore directly upon the point that Upton probably became ill through the agency of flies settling on the sewage matter and then entering his dining-room in the summer or fall when the windows were open and directly contaminating the food. The jury awarded Mr. Upton $1,500 damages, which were afterward paid him. This was the first case to be recorded in Pennsylvania of a city's flies costing a municipality anything.

The success of the Agricultural Department's war upon mosquitoes, which has resulted in experiments with the malaria and yellow fever breeding varieties, has encouraged the Department to take the field against houseflies. The remedy, as it declares, is plain. This consists of two courses of procedure: (1) Proper care of all offensive waste matter; (2) the destruction of flies.

For the care of waste matter and of drains it recommends thorough disinfection and a liberal use of chloride of lime.

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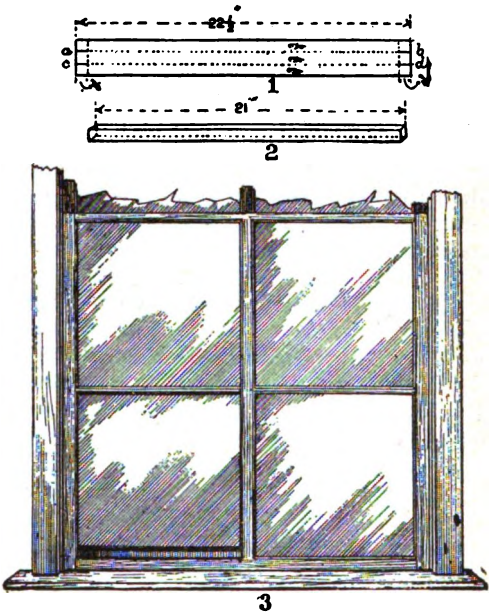
Even in an isolated farmhouse, the number of flies can be greatly reduced. All horse manure accumulating in stables should be collected, if not daily, at least once a week, and should be placed in either a pit or a vault, or in a closet-like screened inclosure at the side or end of the stable. This closet should have an outside door from which horse manure can be shoveled when it is needed for fertilizing purposes. The accumulation of each day or week should be sprinkled over the surface with chloride of lime, and a barrel of this substance can be kept conveniently in the closet. The application of this plan, so experiment has proved, deprives the houseflies of all possible chance to breed, and reduces them to inconsiderable numbers. Of the many experiments tried for destroying housefly maggots in manure-piles, this with chloride of lime has been found to be the cheapest and most efficacious. It should be borne in mind that the closets for the reception of manure should be made tight to prevent the entrance or exit of flies. A window fitted with wire screen is not desirable, since the corroding chloride fumes will ruin a wire screen in a few days.

In thickly settled districts, in order to wage warfare against flies with perfect effectiveness, a measure must be generally adopted; yet even in cities small neighborhoods, as well as individual households, can do much for their own protection. Indeed, certain portions of Chicago, for instance, have practically ridded themselves of flies by merely obeying the ordinance requiring the exclusive use of metal garbage cans. Some households set an excellent example by burning up all their garbage in the kitchen range, instead of throwing it away to be added to some pestilential dumping-ground.

When flies have gained entrance to a house, one may destroy them by means of a trap devised by the Kansas Experiment Station as follows:

"Take a flat strip of tin 2¼ inches wide and 1½ inches longer than the distance between the side rail or stile and middle rail of the sash, as from *c* to *d*, of the cut, which in this case measured 21 inches. For this window, the strip must be 22½ inches in length. With the tin lying on a flat surface, bend the tin along the lines *ab* and *cd* (1), which are ¾ inch from their respective sides, so that the space *abdc* forms the bottom of a box and the lateral parts the sides. To close the ends, cut small incisions ¾ inch deep at the points *a, b, c,* and *d* (1). Bend the flaps thus made at right angles to their respective parts. We then have a box 21 inches long, ¾ inch wide, and ¾ inch deep, as at (2). To make the box water-tight, solder the joints, or if solder is not handy try moistened plaster of Paris. When properly made the box should fit snugly between the middle and side rail or stile. The corners should be square and the edges straight, so as to leave no passageway between the box and the glass. The box



DEVICE FOR TRAPPING FLIES.

should rest on top of the bottom rail, and can be held in place by two or three tacks or pins thrust into the rail from the back side. When the pane is very large it is well to attach another trap halfway between the top and the bottom.

"The method of using these traps is, in brief, as follows: 'After the traps have been attached some substance should be put into them that will either kill the insect upon falling into it, or, on account of its sticky nature, will hold the insect, so that it can not escape. For the first, kerosene, kerosene emulsion, soapsuds, and pyrethrum are the best; and for the second, molasses, or a mixture of castor oil and

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resin.' For general use, strong suds made from ordinary, common washing soap is recommended, filling the traps two-thirds full with the liquid. Kerosene is most fatal to the flies, but it must be used with care or it will soil the sash. In using it fill the trap half full with water and add enough kerosene to form a film.

"There should be one trap for every pane of glass of at least one window in the house. For instance, when the sash contains two panes of glass there should be two traps, one at the base of each pane. When the sash contains four panes there should be four traps, two on the bottom rail and two on the crossbars or mounting. It is not necessary to apply traps to all the windows. Attach traps to one or two windows in the sunny part of the house, and pull down the blinds of the remaining windows. The flies will seek the lighted rooms, and especially the windows.

"When the traps are full of flies remove them from their fastenings, empty out their contents, and fill them with fresh material."

FLOOD INCIDENTS AT ST. LOUIS.—Romance, tragedy, and humor were all written of the great East St. Louis flood, while deeds of daring were common events. In fact, every element of human interest and human life entered into the calamity that overtook the greater portion of the American bottoms, when the Mississippi River left its banks between St. Louis and Alton, Illinois, as a result of the disastrous floods in the West and North.

Flood stories might be written by the column, by the page in fact, but the various elements of human nature as exhibited in the following true incidents are well worth the "stock" of any imaginative writer. Indeed, novelists from the East actually came to St. Louis and took part in the rescuing of flood victims in order to get material for stories and books. The names of some of these writers are well-known to the reading public.

Names and places, actual occurrences are here offered in a shining array of drama, comedy, tragedy, and serio-comedy. Equal to the emergencies in all events were the classes that took part in the rescues, the daring escapes, and the fatal accidents.

The element of tragedy of course overshadowed everything else. When Mrs. Cowels clung to a tree at Topeka for twenty-four hours and then fell into the water just as a boat was coming to her rescue, there was nothing left for her friends but to weep. But when little Aleck Jason, a colored boy at East St. Louis, swam nearly halfway across the Mississippi River, in order to save a chicken coop filled with live pullets, and came near capsizing in an effort to tug the coop ashore, the crowds laughed and yelled uproariously.

On the other side of the stage different scenes were enacted. Men in boats charged enormous sums to rescue persons whom they believed to have money. Col. Wilson, a reputed wealthy citizen of East St. Louis, was caught in his home like a rat in a trap. He climbed to the roof of his elegant house and appealed for help. There was really no immediate danger for the colonel, but he became extremely nervous and begged some of the boatmen to take him away, even before the more needy in his section of the city were attended to. Finally, the waters began to creep around the eaves of his home and he was growing desperate. A boat came alongside. The colonel offered $100 for an immediate ride to the highlands. Just then a widow woman and her two children appeared on the roof of an adjoining house, having been driven from the attic by the rising waters. The widow's name is Mrs. Mitchell, and she was very good looking.

"I want you to come and take me away," she screamed to the boatman. "My children and I are starving."

"I am offered a hundred dollars by this man to take him first. Can you give more?" the boatman asked.

"I have no money to pay for a boat ride, but I will give you a kiss," the pretty young widow screamed.

Those who stood on Eads bridge were a witness to the fact that the boatman turned his skiff in her direction and carried her and her children away before the colonel. And he never claimed the kiss. But three days later, when the waters were receding, Frank McConnel, the boatman, and Mrs. Mitchell, the widow, were wed. They will go to housekeeping in the same spot upon which their romance began.

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Venice, Madison, and Granite City, three manufacturing suburbs of St. Louis, were wholly inundated. The levees broke and let the water upon the cities without warning. Men were working in factories as the waters came sweeping down and some of them barely returned to their families. In many instances, the women were caught prisoners in second stories and on the roofs of the houses many blocks distant from husbands and relatives.

A Polander working in the mills at Madison was running homeward from his shop when the high waters overtook him. A mother and child in a house near at hand, he could see through the mist, were in danger and alone. He plodded through the waves to the door, carried them to high ground and then journeyed homeward in water to his shoulders, expecting his own wife and child to be on the roof or in serious danger. But to his joy he learned that they had been rescued by some brave-hearted man who was passing and realized their danger, just as the Pole had done for those who were utter strangers.

Charles H. Lyndell, a member of the militia, came to East St. Louis to aid in keeping peace during the flood times. He patroled the inundated district in a boat during the night. On the night when the dikes were breaking and water was pouring into the higher sections of town, it seemed as if the whole city was to be wiped off the map. Lyndell was terror-stricken himself, but to his surprise he heard a voice ringing out clear over the waters. When he was relieved from duty, he hastened toward the house whence the sounds had come and made the acquaintance of the young woman who dared sing when facing death. It was Miss Birdie Mitchel. The couple were married the next day.

But while little Dan Cupid was perched high and dry above the flood, the cases of suffering were many and terrible.

In West Madison, a tiny schoolhouse sheltered 150 people for two days and two nights. All that time they were without food. Meanwhile, the four-months old child of a Mrs. Walker died and its body had to be cast adrift in the black waters. No sleep could be had, for the building, it was expected, would collapse every moment. When a harbor boat came to take them away, many were too weak to climb aboard. T. C. Drayton of North Venice, when he saw the high waters coming, succeeded in rowing his wife and youngest child to a place of safety. He then returned for the eldest boy. The two of them were unable to get back that night, and it was feared lest they had been drowned. Two days later they were rescued from a floating house several miles down the stream. Louis Kisner and his wife, living in Madison, loved their little home far too well for their own safety. When the waters began to rise about the yard, they scorned all offers to haul them away. They locked the doors and remained inside. An hour or two later the tiny frame shack was seen floating downstream, and nothing has been heard from Kisner and his wife since.

Hiram Smith employed a boatman in Venice to row him from his home to the Merchants' Bridge. The price agreed upon was fifty cents. But after they were well started the boatman raised his price to five dollars. Smith refused to pay such a sum, and leveling a gun, forced the boatman to haul him free. In several instances boats were taken from their greedy owners by the militia.

Mary Scroggins, a fourteen-year-old girl, was rescued by the harbor boat, *Mark Twain*. She is an orphan and was living out as a hired girl. She at once turned rescuer and aided the cooks in baking bread for the other flood sufferers. The child was adopted by a wealthy family soon after she was taken to the refuge station in St. Louis. Her cheerful manner won friends everywhere.

F. G. Prather and wife escaped from the flood on North Broadway in St. Louis after a clever fashion. They were forced to jump into a box car to escape the high waters over night and the next morning the current was running so swiftly beneath the car that Mrs. Prather was afraid to leave. So the couple captured some floating debris and Prather got on the front end of the car and so arranged a number of boards as to turn the current against the end of the car sitting in the deepest of the flood. In this way, the force of the waters was used in pushing the car along the tracks to almost dry land.

WILLIAM R. DRAPER.

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Foreign Service of the United States: Uncle Sam Abroad.

BY

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THERE is nothing new or strange in the fact that Uncle Sam, as we familiarly personify our nation, is abroad, that is to say, in the person of his accredited representatives, is to be found in nearly every land under the sun. The concept of nationality identifies every governmental unit with a circumscribed area beyond which its powers do not extend; but the needs of efficient administration make it necessary that a particular group of officials be sent to the capitals of other nations as representatives of their country in its political capacity, while another group is distributed throughout these same nations to take care of its commercial interests. Hence, it follows that not only Uncle Sam, but also every other nation of any consequence is represented abroad by these two groups of officials, known respectively as the Diplomatic and the Consular service. What these two arms of the administration are in our own government, their duties, qualifications, etc., it is the purpose herein briefly to consider.

First a word, however, in regard to the Department of State, which is the organ of administration through which the foreign service operates. Its scope is indicated by the seven bureaus into which it is divided, namely, the Bureau of Indexes and Archives, the Bureau of Accounts of the State Department, the Bureau of Rolls and Library, the Bureau of Appointments, the Bureau of Statistics of Foreign Commerce (recently transferred to the newly created Department of Commerce), the Consular Bureau, and the Diplomatic Bureau. The importance of this department may also be inferred from the fact that men like Jefferson, Marshall, Madison, Monroe, John Quincy Adams, Clay, Webster, Calhoun, Seward, and Blaine have been at its head. Greater responsibilities devolve upon the Secretary of State than upon any other officer in the government, with the single exception of the President. It is he more than anyone else who decides upon the position to be taken by the administration upon all international questions, who negotiates treaties, keeps in touch with foreign diplomatic representatives in Washington as well as with our own representatives at foreign capitals, and, in a word, safeguards the dignity of the State. His position has been greatly magnified in consequence of the binding together of the capitals of the world by telegraph and cable; for just as the facilities for speedy communication have been improved, the responsibility formerly borne by foreign ministers has been centralized in the home office; so that at present the initiative in important business would scarcely ever be undertaken by an ambassador without previous consultation with the Secretary of State.

Thus the modern ambassador is robbed of much of the old-time splendor and importance of his office. Nevertheless, his position is no sinecure, as recent events testify; for it is no mean task to prevent misunderstandings and promote international good feeling, leaving to the home office the formulation of policies of state.

The diplomatic officers are of four grades; namely, Ambassador, Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary, Minister Resident, and Chargé d'Affaires. Of the ambassadorial rank the United States now has one at each of the following capitals: London, Paris, Berlin, St. Petersburg, Rome, Vienna, and

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Mexico. These differ from those of lower grade in respect to precedence and salary, but not in function. At the great majority of foreign capitals the United States is represented by a diplomat of the second rank, which is very poor policy, since he may be outranked by an ambassador at that court from the most insignificant power on earth. This is a vestige of a silly tradition. Evidently, we ought to be represented by a diplomat of the highest rank at every court where other nations are similarly represented, and for no other reason than that our prestige is made to suffer unnecessarily by our present practice.

A Minister Resident is to be found at only one or two capitals, and in each case the office is united with that of Consul General. A Chargé d'Affaires is usually a Secretary of Legation who is left temporarily in charge during the absence of his superior officer. At each legation there are to be found from one to three Secretaries, a military and a naval attaché at the largest ones, sometimes a chaplain, and in Oriental countries an interpreter.

The duties of diplomatic officers, as stated above, are pretty much the same regardless of rank; for whether an ambassador, a minister, or a chargé d'affaires he performs essentially the same functions. His efficiency is affected much more by his natural adaptability to the office. Men ordinarily admire and covet a certain plainness and directness of speech which in business may amount even to bluntness. But this same frankness of speech, which, at its worst, might prove only disadvantageous in any other business, amounts to a complete disqualification in diplomacy. Your diplomat in his business must be all ears and no tongue until the time comes for him to speak, and then he must know exactly what to say and what not to say. He must remember that his opinion will be regarded as official whether or not he intends it so, and therefore it must be guarded religiously. In society, somewhat to the contrary, there should be no outward indication of a studied reserve—nothing to act as a restraint upon his movement and conversation. He should be a man of suave and polite address, of engaging manners, and of affability and urbanity in conversation. He should not only be well trained in the usages of good society, but should also thoroughly acquaint himself with the traditional etiquette of the court where he resides.

The appointment of the chief of a legation is a most delicate matter requiring the greatest precaution. The nomination is usually made privately to the foreign government without the knowledge of the prospective appointee, who is thus saved the pain of rejection, should he prove to be *persona non grata;* and rejections are by no means uncommon, and that, too, for reasons which in any other case would be

trivial. Moreover, a diplomat is liable to be recalled at any time, and if in an important position is very sure to be recalled upon a change of administration in the home government. This, however, is more easily justified than the minor changes which are usually made when a new party comes into power. It may be granted, for instance, that while we may be excellently represented at the court of St. James, or Paris, or Berlin, yet a change of administration in the United States would require corresponding changes in those diplomatic posts for no other reason than that the party in power, especially if

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Diplomatic Ball

it be not that of the previous administration deserves to have its views represented by one of its own political faith. But it cannot be contended that the whole diplomatic corps should change, much less that the Consular service should be affected in the least by such an event. The latter has suffered immeasurably by reason of its being made a part of the political machinery, while its purpose is commercial and industrial, and therefore non-political.

The Consular service consists, all told, of over one thousand men, while the Diplomatic numbers less than one hundred. As just stated, its functions are mainly commercial. It represents the interests of individuals rather than of states, and its domain is that of "private international law," or the "conflict of laws," rather than international law, which is interstate law.

There are three principal grades in the Consular service, namely, Consul-General, Consul, and Commercial Agent. A consul-general has limited jurisdiction over the consuls in the country where he resides. He is in no sense an auditing officer, his supervisory functions being little more than are necessary to insure that the consular regulations are complied with and the reports prepared for the State Department. The consular duties are practically the same for the three grades of Consular officers.

The subordinate consular officers, below consular rank, are as follows: Vice-Consul General, Vice-Consul, Vice-Commercial Agent, Deputy Consul General, Deputy Consul, Consular Agent, Consular Clerk, Interpreter, Marshal, and Clerk at Consulate. The majority of these subordinate positions are filled by natives of the places where the offices are located, for the salaries are usually too low to tempt an American to leave home. Even in some of the larger positions the questionable policy has frequently been followed of employing natives, who are thus frequently compelled to choose between disloyalty to an employer or to the interests of their own countrymen. Moreover, even to-day some very responsible positions do not pay more than the incumbent is supposed to expend in maintaining the supposed dignity of his position. It is no argument to the contrary to say that there are hundreds of men clamoring for just such places. The positions should be salaried in some degree commensurate with the value of the work done and the dignity of the office.

The consul enjoys certain treaty rights in the discharge of his duties, though these are by no means uniform in our treaty stipulations with other countries. The principal treaty privileges are as follows:

1. The "most favored nation" clause, which entitles the consuls of the contracting powers to all the privileges and immunities granted by those powers to other nations.

2. Inviolability of the consular archives and papers, which exempts them from molestation by local authorities.

3. Inviolability of the consular office and dwelling; but it is understood that they are not to be used as an asylum or place of refuge for fugitives from the law.

4. Exemption from arrest, which secures to the consul the freedom of a diplomatic officer—a privilege seldom enjoyed in full.

5. Exemption from obligation to appear

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as a witness, except for defense of a person accused of a crime.

6. Exemption from taxation of personal effects.

7. Exemption from military billetings and public service.

Consular officers are under certain prohibitions as to their personal conduct, for Uncle Sam does not propose to have them intermeddling in foreign politics. They are desired to "cultivate friendly social relations with the community in which they reside," but to "refrain from expressing harsh or disagreeable opinions upon local, political, or other questions which divide the community within their jurisdiction." They are forbidden to participate in any manner in the political concerns of the country. "In their (public) dispatches upon such subjects they will confine themselves to the communication of important or interesting public events as they occur, avoiding all unnecessary reflections upon the character or conduct of individuals or governments, and they will not give publicity through the press or otherwise to opinions injurious to the public institutions of the country or the persons concerned in their administration." A consul may not accept "any present, emolument, pecuniary favor, office, or title of any kind from any foreign government," except on permission of the Department of State. He may not wear any distinguishing uniform, nor make public speeches if, without exciting feeling, it can be avoided, nor be absent from his consulate longer than forty-eight hours without reporting the fact to the Department of State.

Consular duties are entirely too numerous to be mentioned, but the following classification may be of service to show the extent and variety of their functions:

1. Duties commercial.
2. Duties in connection with the customs regulations.
3. Duties to merchant vessels.
4. Duties in case of wrecks.
5. Duties to officers, naval, diplomatic and departmental.
6. Duties to seamen.
7. Duties to citizens other than seamen.
8. Duties in connection with quarantine and immigration.
9. Duties judicial in unenlightened countries.
10. Duties to the State Department.
11. Duties miscellaneous.

The most important and the most exacting of these is the first. Under this head are enumerated in the Consular Regulations, "conditions of foreign commerce and internal trade, manufactures, mechanical industries, agriculture, statistics of exports and imports, public debts, taxation, changes in purchasing power of the currency, banking, facilities for direct and indirect communication with the United States, development or decline of commercial and manufacturing centers, changes in tariff legislation, patent, trade-mark, and copyright laws, etc. Such information of an industrial or political character as will be of advantage to industry in our own country is eagerly sought and promptly reported by the wideawake consul.

Again, a large part of the consul's attention is devoted to the second class of duties in order to prevent importers from defrauding the customs officers. This sometimes necessitates a vast amount of technical research into manufacturing processes to determine the true classified valuations of certain commodities so as to avoid relying upon the statements of interested parties.

One other duty will be mentioned as an illustration of the wide range of qualifications a consul may be expected to possess. In such countries as China, Korea, Turkey, Persia, and a few others, the more highly civilized nations have always exercised political jurisdiction over their own citizens and have protected their property. It results that the consular officers in those countries are entrusted with a greater measure of power than can be found anywhere else under our flag; for, in addition to all other consular duties, he exercises the functions of a judge. Indeed, in certain civil and criminal proceedings it is hardly too much to say that he is also jury and prosecuting attorney.

It will be observed that the requirements for a good consul and a good diplomat are somewhat unlike. It should go without saying that to be successful in either a man should have a thorough academic training. In addition, to be a good consul, he should be a good business man. He should have a mind for details, a quick and keen commercial insight, an ac-

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quaintance with the material facts of life, in short, the training of a merchant or journalist, supplemented by that of the lawyer, and in some cases of the jurist. The diplomat, on the other hand, should first of all be a statesman. In the pursuit of a great national ambition he should have wisdom to foresee, genius to plan, and tact to execute. In great international emergencies the diplomat does the work of a military chieftain; but his means are peaceful, the warfare is in secret, the results are bloodless, and when all is done it must be left to the historian alone to recognize the skill with which he has fought.

There is a growing demand that the consular service be put upon a civil service basis, and the diplomatic likewise, so far as it is practicable. Surely those who have the good of the service at heart can unite in the wish that a good man once discovered should be retained and promoted, and that the foolish and wasteful practice of training men by costly experience for valuable work, and then dropping them for nothing but political reasons when they are ready to be of the greatest service, should be at once abandoned. It is gratifying to be able to record more progress of recent years, beginning about 1895, than had been known for a long time. Much remains to be done, however, before we can afford to be satisfied with our methods of selecting men.

(For detailed information on the topic of the foregoing article the reader is directed to "Uncle Sam Abroad," a popularized account of the American Diplomatic and Consular service, published by Rand, McNally & Co.)

GARBAGE is converted into a fertilizer of commercial value, and thus the city of Cleveland, Ohio, gets rid of its waste in a useful manner. The Newburg Reduction Company of that city has an extensive plant whose adequate equipment of machinery converts from 150 to 200 tons of garbage into fertilizer every ten hours. At stated hours every day the company sends through the city 200 wagons to collect the garbage. The households know when the garbage wagons will come, and have their garbage waiting in the tin cans furnished by the company to every house in the city. The boxes of the wagons, into which the cans are dumped, are of sheet steel, and are watertight. The boxes have curved-top covers, which fit tightly and so prevent the odor from escaping. These wagonloads are hauled to a special train which carries the loaded wagon boxes out to the reducing works. The collection of one day reaches the works before the dawn of the following day, and is reduced before the dawn of the next day to the fertilizer called tankage. The special train carrying the wagon boxes runs into the main building of the plant. The boxes are hoisted forty feet into the air and then conducted over an aerial rail to a platform that surrounds the tops of the fourteen great digestors. These digestors are iron tanks, twenty feet deep and fifteen feet in circumference, made strong enough to resist the pressure of the steam forced inside them during the process of digesting the garbage, of which each digestor holds five tons. At the top of each is an opening through which the garbage is shoveled in. When the digestor is full the top is bolted on and the steam turned on the mass inside. The steam is kept at 300 degrees for ten hours, when everything is cooked. The only handwork, after the collection, is done by a gang of men on the platform, whose duty it is to pick out of the garbage pieces of tin, wood, and other substances that cannot be reduced to tankage. Then the water is drained from the mass, purified, and allowed to flow into the river. The cooked mass is then taken from the bottoms of the digestors to the separators, which screen out the undigested lumps. These, accounted as waste, are given to neighboring farmers to spread on their fields. The pulp, freed from lumps, is spread, by the separating machines, on racks having sides four inches high. As fast as ten four-inch layers are formed, they are conveyed on small trucks to hydraulic presses and squeezed to small hard cakes one-fourth the size of the original layers under a pressure of 3,000 pounds to the square inch. In the next and last machine these cakes are thoroughly dried and ground to fine brown powder, which smells much like guano or phosphate fertilizer. Then it is ready for the market.

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HARVESTING RICE IN ALABAMA.

Harvesting in America.

BY

WILLIAM R. DRAPER.

AN era of prosperity has hovered about the American farmer in recent years, until he may now well be called the magnate of varied industries. The profits accrued from bumper crops equal, if they do not exceed, the earnings of some of the most gigantic manufacturing concerns. Even the so-called trusts have been no more successful in earning capacity than the American farmers. For this great earning power, the improved conditions in the life of the American farmer are mainly responsible. The land has not increased in productive power, although the prices have advanced. The man who lives "next to the soil" has kept his eyes open to the advanced methods of crop growing, and has used brain with brawn in soil tilling. Modern machinery and all other modern conveniences have been purchased by the country population and they have proven a profitable investment. The ideas formerly believed impracticable in the country are now

THRESHING WHEAT IN KANSAS.

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applied with full force and effect. The man who lives upon the American farm to-day is placed in quite as close touch with city affairs as if he resided within walking distance of the city hall.

Farmers usually spend their winters at rest, comparatively so at least. Only the stock must be cared for and crops hauled to market when prices reach the satisfactory notch in the scale made by the speculators, while other minor affairs of farm life keep him sufficiently busy to enjoy life. But the season of greatest activity comes with the harvest. Day by day, the farmer watches the growth and maturing of his crops. He consults the weather oracle daily in hope that it will either rain or snow during the winter, according to the needs of the wheat. A heavy snow is absolutely necessary during the winter to insure a good yield of healthy wheat in the harvest. Rains in the spring are always welcome, unless they come too late. On certain crops, the rains of April and May are of slight benefit, while other crops are materially advanced by them.

The harvest of the cereal crops is the most important task of the summer season, although in certain sections of the United States the hay crop is considered of far more importance; and again fruit, melons, and vegetables are the principal source of income to the farmers of other communities. Gathering the crops gives employment to hundreds of thousands of workers, notwithstanding that modern machinery has been made to accomplish the work of many hands and lessens the expense of the harvest likewise. But every season the gigantic yields of cereals increase and the engagement of a sufficient number of helpers in the harvest time is always a matter of serious doubt to the farmers themselves.

To harvest the crops of the world, 10,000,000 men and women are engaged nine months in the year. The harvest of the wheat of the United States alone engages about 1,000,000 men and 50,000 teams, three months of the summer, while at least 10,000 women are needed to prepare food for the workers. The harvest of other crops employs less men, but the entire number of harvesters needed in gathering the crops of the United States has been estimated at 1,520,700, that is exclusive of the farmers that reside on their own land and aid in the harvest.

COMBINED HARVESTER AT WORK IN CALIFORNIA.
Drawn by twenty-eight mules.

Harvest field-workers bring millions of dollars into the coffers of the country annually. The income of the farmers last year was about five and one-half billion dollars, all which came about by the hard toil of the farm-workers. There are

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GRAIN FOR ALL THE WORLD.
Sacked wheat awaiting shipment.

A MODERN CORN HARVESTER.

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GATHERING PEACHES IN MISSOURI.

5,000,000 day laborers in the United States, of which 500,000 belong to the farm-working class. The earnings of no other class equal by one-third the total income of the farmers. The farm-workers have recently been organizing a union for the purpose of demanding an increase of wages, and with the strikes which have already occurred in the harvest field, both during the present and past season, it seems that there may be trouble ahead for the farm-owner who seeks to keep down wages. Indeed, should the organized labor movement become so strong in this industry as it has in manufacturing, the smaller farmers, like the smaller manufacturers, may be driven out of business by the increased cost of labor.

The cost of planting, caring for, and gathering an acre of wheat is about $5.50, while corn harvesting costs about $5.80 per acre. The profit realized by the farmer is far above the usual amount paid to a workman to produce an article of equal value in a factory.

The farming industry is gigantic in its proportions, the total acreage used for farming purposes being 841,000,000 acres —an area larger than England, Scotland, Ireland, Wales, France, Germany, Austria, Spain, Japan, and the Transvaal. There are 10,438,000 persons engaged in the agricultural pursuits, while all other industries employ but 18,845,000. One-third of the entire country is therefore devoted to farming. It is little wonder that the harvest should attract attention.

Having spent the days of winter and spring in a well-earned rest, farmers are always ready for a thrilling engagement during the summer. That is the time when everything is done with a rush, the farm being the center of the stage of industrial action, so to speak. Men who sit in their offices in Wall street are quite as much worried, in fact, over the condition of the crops, as the owner of the field. Speculation has taken a deep hold in the handling of the cereal crops, and the field of wheat has probably been sold a dozen times over before a straw is cut.

The harvesting season opens in May, beginning with Florida and Texas and moving northward at the rate of from

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twenty to fifty miles per day. Harvesting does not commence in the northwestern wheat belt until the middle of July, and by that time the wheat and oats have all been cut, stacked, and thrashed in the southern portion of the United States. The harvesting season in general is at its height during June and July, and it is then that the cry for harvest helpers goes unanswered while the golden grain lies rotting in the fields. Bureaus for the handling of the "harvest hand" business have been established by many States in the center of its wheat belts, while in Kansas a private enterprise conducts a "harvest hand" employment agency, through whose endeavors a hundred thousand helpers are engaged for the farmers every summer.

While wheat, corn, and oats are the principal crops and are likewise the largest source of income to the farmers, there are many other crops which bring in a great deal of money. In the South cotton is to be considered, and is in far greater proportion than wheat or corn. Cotton pickers are paid even less wages than the men who work in the wheat fields. Men who gather the tobacco crop are also slightly paid. The scale of wages for harvest hands varies from $4.50 per day for members of the threshing crew to $1.50 per day for cotton pickers and tobacco-strippers. Youngsters who work in the cotton field often earn less than seventy-five cents.

Excitement attends the harvest on the gigantic wheat ranch of the West, where thousands of men are employed in a single community. The trains arriving from the city are watched by the farmers, as if they were laden with gold, and when a harvest hand alights at the country station in the midst of the wheat belt, he finds a dozen persons seeking his services. It is then that the harvester may swell with independence, and this has led to the formation of unions for the increase of wages.

Many boys and even young women are employed to do the lighter work of the harvest fields, such as raking hay, carrying bundles, and driving teams. The hardest work of the field is around the thresher, and here the men are better paid. It requires experience to run a threshing outfit and the owners select their men long before the harvest season arrives. Threshing is now done by contract, generally two cents per bushel. In former years the crew was furnished by the farmer and the owner of the machine rented it at so much per day.

On the great ranches of the West, where wheat and alfalfa are grown in fields covering thousands of acres, the scene of greatest excitement is witnessed. From fifteen to twenty self-binders are circling about a field of yellow wheat at the same time, while in the alfalfa field a dozen mowers may be cutting down swaths and a hundred men are engaged in stacking the alfalfa or other hay as it is hauled across the fields to a central location.

On wheat ranches where the grain is in danger of becoming overripe, the men often work day and night, two crews being used. Moonlight nights and Sundays are always utilized in the wheat belt of Kansas and Oklahoma. For night-work double time is paid to the workers, but in the end the saving is great to the owners of the grain, which might otherwise be destroyed by wind or rain. In a field where hundreds of men are employed the profit is not always the greatest. The expenses of conducting a wheat ranch are large and very often the small farm pays the best rate of interest. Farms upon which hay and grain are made the principal source of income rank first as profitable investments. Here it is that the best wages are paid the workers. The average amount of money expended by farmers of the United States in the employment of help last year was $75 per farm, or an increase of $11 over three years ago. The prices paid for running sugar farms averaged $1,895 each, while tobacco and cotton farms were conducted for $50 each per farm. The harvesting of an acre of tobacco cost twenty per cent. less, according to the prices secured, than wheat or corn. The average expense per farm for labor increases every year. This is due to the increase in the size of crops and the amount of wages. The income of the farmer is growing at the same time, and the farmer who, in 1899, made a profit of $840 on his eighty-acre farm, to-day realizes almost twice the sum. He has invested additional money, however, in modern machinery and spends a certain per cent. of his income for fertilizers and improvements.

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American Homogeneity.

BY

IVAN C. WATERBURY.

THERE are five conditions which, taken together, are deemed essential to secure firm national unity: Homogeneity of race, unity of language, unity of traditions, geographical unity, and a strong natural boundary. There are cases in history where the lack of one of these conditions prevented the formation of a strong, united nation. Ancient Greece had practical homogeneity of race, language and religion, but her lack of geographical unity developed that sectionalism which is fatal to the formation of a national unit. Poland had one race, one language, one religion, and uniformity of internal configuration, but her fatal lack of a strong natural boundary led to her partition by bordering nations after all her vain patriotic endeavors to bring about a firm national organization. The Austro-Hungarian Empire, exceedingly heterogeneous in race, language, religion and almost every other particular presents a political anomaly which is not commonly expected to survive the life of the present emperor.

The light of the foregoing facts facilitates a study of the political and sociological tendencies of the American nation; and, complex as these tendencies are, it can be shown that they move on broad converging lines. Isolated between two oceans, the geographical position of the United States is more advantageous for national unity and integrity on a large scale even than the island of Great Britain. British unity was assured as soon as William the Conqueror gave England its first stable government based on English law, under the control of which government Norman, Saxon, Dane, and Celt were to blend their blood to form the English people of to-day and to speak the English tongue. Just as the British people was formed centuries ago by the slow assimilation, after many bloody wars, of several kindred Teutonic elements and a minor unrelated Celtic element, so the American people has been steadily forming into a like homogeneous body by the rapid, peaceful assimilation of approximately the same elements and some minor unrelated elements from Slavic and Latin Europe.

Descendants of the original builders of the British Empire constituted the main element of the original thirteen States, but not the only element. There was an important population of Dutch in New York, of Germans in Pennsylvania, and of Swedes in New Jersey, Pennsylvania, and Delaware; also of French Huguenots in the Carolinas, and Scotch-Irish in Pennsylvania and the valleys leading southward through Virginia and the Carolinas to Georgia. Thus, though the American people, at the time of the Declaration of Independence, was far from being of pure English descent, yet the English was so strongly predominant that the English language, law, and customs prevailed everywhere. Furthermore, the vast majority of these elements were so near akin in race that the assimilation of all was easy and rapid, and this assimilation ultimately included the descendants of the French colonists in the Northwest Territory and in the Louisiana Purchase Territory. Most of the large Spanish population added to the American people by the acquisition of Florida, Texas, New Mexico, and California soon emigrated to Mexico and Cuba.

The rapid assimilation of various elements into one great English-speaking people, begun in the Colonial period of our history, has developed into an irresistible movement, which is creating the American people. The homogenizing force of this assimilative movement has steadily increased with the stubbornness of the material it has encountered.

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Though the yearly foreign immigration to this country is fast approaching the million mark, yet the powerful assimilation goes on. Usually, it takes only one generation of residence in the United States to remove practically all traces of near European ancestry.

The numerical increase of American population since the Revolution is without parallel in history, and the elements here that have to be assimilated are as various as those of the Austro-Hungarian Empire, but over that dual monarchy the United States has the great advantage of having its elements vastly the more evenly mixed and distributed as to locality. Under the conditions hitherto existing the elements of the Austro-Hungarian population are irreconcilable and cannot be assimilated. Moreover, whereas comparatively few natives of the United States know any language besides English, it is usual and necessary for the native of Austria-Hungary to know at least from two to five languages. That Empire, if it does not fall to pieces, must continue to be a land of many national types for centuries after the imperial American Commonwealth has become a land of one distinct national type. Whether the ultimate distinctive American will be, on the whole, English-Teutonic or Celtic, Latin or Slavic, one can, from census data, foretell with assurance.

Complexity of industrial and commercial conditions, multiplicity of economic opportunity, and freedom—mental, religious, political and economic—these are the powerful forces operative in the United States, and they have proved sufficient to destroy the influences of old world associations and traditions on the lives of immigrants. It is the operation of these forces that has developed the great assimilative movement hereinbefore mentioned. The foreign born population, upon which this assimilative movement has to work within our borders comprises five ethnic groups, namely: the English—Teutonic, including English, Australians, Norwegians, Swedes, Danes, Finland Swedes, Germans, Poland-Germans and Hollanders; the Celtic, including the Irish, Welsh and Gaelic Scotch; the Celto-Latin, including the French, French Canadians, and Belgians; the Ibero-Latin, including the Greeks, Italians, Spanish, and Portuguese; and the Slavic, including the Austrians, Hungarians, Bohemians, Russians, Austrian Poles, Russian Poles, and Roumanians. Of all the foreign born population in the United States, 52.9 per cent are of the English-Teutonic stock, and 20.9 are Celts. Thus, practically three-fourths of the foreign born in the United States are of English-Teutonic and Celtic stocks. Hence, bearing in mind that the English people was created by the amalgamation of Teutonic with Celtic blood, it is inconceivable that the American people will ever be anything but essentially English.

However, overwhelmingly English-Teutonic as are both the native and foreign born in this country, there will be slightly modifying elements in the blood of the future typical American. The five ethnic groups from which the foreign born inhabitants of the United States are sprung represent all three of the great racial subdivisions of the population of Europe. The white race as a whole consists of two great sub-races, the Eurafrican and the Eurasian. The Eurafrican is so called because, from prehistoric times, it has inhabited the Mediterranean coast region of Africa, and western Europe. The Eurasian race is so called because it has dwelt, from prehistoric times, in central and eastern Europe and western Asia. The Eurafrican sub-race is distinguished by a long skull—it is dolichocephalic. The Eurasian race is brachycephalic, broad-skulled. To it belong all the Slavic peoples. Another name for the Eurasian race is the Alpine, because its most typical representatives are dwellers in the highlands of central Europe.

The Eurafrican race is further subdivided into two great branches, namely, the Mediterranean and the Baltic. The Mediterranean man is of short stature and dark complexion tending to olive, and has black eyes and black hair. To this branch of the Eurafrican race belong the Greeks, Italians, Ligurians, Spaniards, the black-eyed Irish, and the black-eyed, black-haired Welsh. The Baltic race is tall, fair, light-eyed, and light-haired. Its typical representatives are the Saxons, Scandinavians and the Rhenish Germans. Hitherto, the vast majority of the American people has been of the Baltic race. Now there are multitudes of immigrants

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of the Mediterranean race, and also of the Alpine race.

Emotionally and temperamentally these three races are strongly differentiated. The Baltic people surpass all others in ambition and energy. They are aggressive, masterful and creative. The quality of their imagination is dramatic, seeking expression in action and in dramatic art. Their emotions are slowest to awaken, but once aroused they are violent and persistent. With the Baltic peoples, as with the Alpine, belief is not a matter of mere understanding. Judgments are formed, for the most part, subjectively; beliefs are suggested and molded more by emotion, mood and temperament than by external facts. This is evidenced by the fondness for dogma, so noticeable in the religious history of northern Europe and in the German fondness for speculative philosophy. Though not indolent, the Mediterranean stocks are leisure-loving and lack aggressiveness; and in so far as they work upon other human beings in their industrial and political activities, they are instigative rather than domineering. Their imagination is plastic, seeking expression in architecture, sculpture and painting. Emotionally they are easily excited and as easily quieted. The Alpine peoples, unlike either the Baltic or the Mediterranean, are slow, contemplative and tender-hearted. Their imagination is sentimental, concerning itself with subjective moods and fancies, and is often beautiful in its play of feeling. They are somewhat lacking in ambition and care little or nothing for ostentation in dress and manner of living.

The mingling of all these strains must needs greatly enrich the American nature. The American people can never lose its English-Teutonic force and masterfulness; but the infusion of a measure of Mediterranean and Alpine blood is to make us more versatile intellectually. It will make us more truly scientific by developing that power of inductive research and of forming judgments by a scientific weighing of evidence which is declared to be correlated with a mixture of bloods. Above all, it is to make us more imaginative and gentler in our thoughts and feelings; in other words, it is to quicken and develop in us the artistic and poetic nature. Therefore, not only will there be great achievements in literature, music, painting, sculpture, and architecture by American individuals, but also an artistic public consciousness by which we shall enjoy highly the beautiful things of life and be intolerant of commercial neglect and vandalism.

JOINT TRANSMISSION OF ALTERNATING AND DIRECT ELECTRIC CURRENTS.—The electric current is the only means by which power can be transmitted economically over long distances. Its use for this purpose involves the employment of large amounts of copper or aluminum for the conductors, the cost of which is often a large proportion of the total cost of the plant. In many cases this cost prohibits the use of the power transmission. As an example of this, it would not be practicable at the present time to transmit power from Niagara Falls to New York City, on account of the enormous cost of the transmission line that would be necessary. From this fact alone it is evident that any plan which will enable conducting material to be more economically employed than it is at present will be of great commercial advantage.

The recent invention by Dr. Frederick Bedell, already well known as an authority on alternating current problems, by which two currents may be transmitted over a conductor at the same time without in any way interfering with each other, appears to be a radical improvement along the line mentioned. The general principle underlying this startling achievement is briefly as follows. In electrical practice there are two general forms of current employed, known as the direct and the alternating currents. In the first class the current flows continuously in one direction, while in the other it is usually reversed as frequently as one hundred or more times a second. If both of these currents be passed through the same wire at the same time it is evident that at one instant the alternating and the direct currents will be opposing or neutralizing each other, while a short time after the two currents will be added together. As the heating of a conductor at any instant is proportional to the square of the current which it is carrying, it is possible to calculate readily the average heating which will be produced. It is found by this means as well as by experi-

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ment that the result of the addition of equal alternating and direct currents produces fifty per cent. less heat than would two equal alternating or direct currents in the same wire. This is equivalent to saying that each current heats the wire exactly the same as if the other were absent. From the standpoint of the loss of pressure in a given circuit, it is interesting to notice that each current causes independently the same drop in pressure, when both are present, as it would if the other were absent. As it is the loss in pressure that frequently dictates the size of wire in a circuit, the importance of this feature is instantly realized.

It should not be inferred from the statement above that every circuit is suited to the adoption of the Bedell system; in fact, it is only applicable to cases where four wires are needed for the alternating current, as is true in two-phase circuits. In many installations the wiring can be planned in such a way as to utilize the features of this system. The results of the commercial application which is now being made will be awaited with interest by all who are concerned in the transmission of considerable amounts of electric power. The plan is another illustration of the flexibility of the electric current transmission, and it shows great ingenuity in applying the results of theoretical calculation. The technical press for the past few weeks contains a number of interesting articles in which special cases are worked out in detail. HENRY H. NORRIS.

LIBRARY ASSOCIATION, MEETING OF THE AMERICAN.—The American Library Association held its twenty-fifth annual meeting at Niagara Falls, June 22-27, 1903. About 650 delegates were present out of a total membership of 1,245. Besides eight general sessions of the association proper, there were meetings of State librarians, the catalog section and other sections.

On the evening of June 22 there was an informal reception. On Tuesday morning (June 23) reports of officers and committees were read, also the report on gifts and bequests. During the year ending May 31, 1903, there were 511 gifts to American libraries, embracing 96,247 volumes and $10,306,407. Of this sum Andrew Carnegie gave $6,679,000 for buildings, making the total amount of his gifts to libraries in the United States $38,505,600. Of his more important benefactions the past year six cities received $4,150,000, as follows: Camden, N. J., $100,000; Philadelphia, $1,500,000; Pittsburgh, $15,000,000; Washington, $350,000; Savannah, $100,000; New Orleans, $250,000; and Cleveland, $350,000, including $100,000 for the founding of a training school for librarians in connection with the Western Reserve University, whose location in Ohio is central.

On Tuesday evening the two chief features of interest were the address of greeting, "Niagara in Literature," by Hon. P. A. Porter, of Buffalo, and the president's address, "Some Things That Are Uppermost," by James K. Hosmer, of the Minneapolis Public Library.

At the general session, Wednesday morning, Melvil Dewey, of Albany, presented the report on the A. L. A. exhibit at the Louisiana Purchase Exposition in 1904. Several prominent librarians read papers, the one of most interest dealing with the relations of libraries to the book-trade. In the discussion the point was brought out that the contract or agreement said to exist between publishers and booksellers lessens the purchasing power of libraries about twenty per cent. This is due to the "net price system" that has been lately in vogue. Some of the speakers favored importing books rather than buying of booksellers in this country. The publisher's side was given by W. F. Zimmerman, president of the A. C. McClurg Company, Chicago.

The fifth general session (June 25) was occupied with reports and discussions on library training and library administration. The evening session was devoted to fiction in public libraries and other topics. Goldwin Smith, of Toronto, made a brief address.

At the general session of June 26, a committee of three was appointed to secure information about buying foreign books and other works. The members are to be on the lookout for bargains. The establishment of a library institute or general headquarters for the association was advocated by George Iles of New York City.

The library bureau would concern itself with the problems of the housing of libraries, the details of administration, the

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appraisement of books, co-operation with lectures requiring "platform libraries," and in securing other aids to readers and library workers. To provide such an institution the gift of $1,000,000 is needed. Here is an opportunity for some large-minded philanthropist of ample means. Thus the centralization of library activities would be made possible.

Features of the evening session (June 26) were an address by Albert Shaw, a paper on "What Canadian Libraries Are Doing," by H. H. Langton of Toronto, and a paper on "Southern Libraries," by Miss M. H. Johnson, of the Carnegie Library, Nashville.

The following officers were elected: President, Herbert Putnam, of the Library of Congress, Washington, James I. Wyer, Jr., librarian of the University of Nebraska Library, Lincoln, Nebraska. The next meeting of the American Library Association will be held in St. Louis in October, 1904.

MAGAZINES, when discarded in the household can be made of great use if distributed to families living in remote parts of the country. Mrs. G. W. Westney of Chicago, has perfected an extensive system of distribution whereby housekeepers in this city can send their burdensome surplusage of beautifully illustrated weeklies and monthlies to people that are hungry for just such reading matter. In the beginning the problem was to find addresses whither magazines could be sent with the certainty of their doing good. The only address Mrs. Westney had was that of the superintendent of a government Indian school in South Dakota. He referred Mrs. Westney to a Mrs. Meyers of Canastota, South Dakota, through whose zealous aid the first box of magazines sent from Chicago has become a circulating library with 280 families drawing from it. Mr. George Dudley, a merchant of Canastota, soon fitted up a room in his store for what has become known as the "People's Free Library." As a gathering place for men, this institution, which includes a traveling library, has become more than a strong rival to the town saloon. By Mrs. Westney's plan All Souls' Church, Chicago, is used as a dispensing agency. From there boxes of magazines now go to seventeen States, mainly in the West and South, and scores of grateful letters reach Mrs. Westney's files from remote communities. Sometimes with the magazines are included pictures, games, and even gifts of money and various useful things, where they will do special good. Through the courtesy of the railroads, the boxes are shipped free; and, as the articles are contributed, it takes only a small amount of money to carry on this work. Many metropolitan churches could organize a similar charitable movement to excellent purpose.

MILK, Agitation for Pure.—On June 29 the Chicago City Council passed an ordinance regulating the sale of milk in that city. It also established a milk and food division in the Health Department. A few days later (July 6) the milk pasteurizing plant, donated by Nathan Straus of New York, was opened in the Thomas Hoyne schoolhouse, and from this central plant pure milk was distributed to sixteen substations in various parts of the city. The milk is sold at less than cost to those able to buy and it will be dispensed free to the poor.

This is the result of the war on bad milk begun in the spring by the Children's Hospital Society of Chicago. Through the determined efforts of this society, with the co-operation of various settlements and dispensaries, this philanthropic enterprise has been carried forward to successful completion. In a sense, it is an achievement of science in the interests of health. It shows indisputably that the scientific spirit is getting in its work, making for pure foods and drinks.

The work of the Children's Hospital Society does not stop here. It has entered upon a campaign to educate public opinion and to enlist dairymen and milk dealers in the service of giving the people good milk. With this end in view it has distributed circulars detailing sanitary regulations as to caring for cows and handling milk and cream. When the requirements of the society are observed, it issues a seal showing that milk has been inspected by the Children's Hospital Society. The society pays the expense of inspection, and it is hoped that many milk dealers will fall in line and help along the movement.

The directions to farmers and dairymen emphasize the importance of keeping cows

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in clean stables, well lighted and ventilated. The health of the animals is to be intelligently looked after, and the milk from diseased cattle not sold or used. Utensils are to be sterilized and other precautions taken against the spread of bacteria. There are suggestions as to feeding cows and strict regulations as to the collection and transportation of milk. Unfortunately there are many persons who are not particular in these matters, and to their carelessness certain outbreaks of diphtheria and typhoid fever have been traced. Attention also is called to the need for the "rapid chilling of the milk after it is drawn, and to the maintenance of the milk at a low temperature until it is delivered to the consumer."

The city consumer of milk should know enough to keep it in a cool place and not leave it around in dishes exposed to the air. The housewife should also beware of mixing it with impure water. In a word, a great price has to be paid for milk in a pure condition, but it is worth while, for it means the saving of many lives.

The beginning of the agitation or crusade for pure milk in this country dates back to 1890, when Mr. Straus, the merchant-prince of New York, started the system of distributing sterilized milk to the poor of New York City, which is said to have saved many thousands of infant lives. He found that milk was sold at five cents a glass in the ports, and he determined to have it placed on sale at one cent a glass. He opened his first milk station and bottling plant in 1891. That year 30,000 six-ounce bottles of milk were distributed; in 1902 the number had increased to 1,200,000 bottles. Now there are eighteen stations in New York where pasteurized milk is distributed, and cheap milk of certified purity may be bought in three parks and on five recreation piers. It is said that the death rate of New York children under five years has fallen from 126 a thousand in 1891 to 75 a thousand in 1902.

Mr. Straus was in Chicago in the latter part of June, supervising the work of installing the pasteurizing plant that he gave to the Children's Hospital Society of Chicago. He strongly advised the milk commission to have pure milk on sale at one cent a glass in the city parks and other public places. From Chicago he went to Philadelphia to found a pasteurizing plant there, and the movement for a pure milk supply has been inaugurated in other cities.

The Lower Mississippi River.

BY

JAMES A. SEDDON, C. E.

FOR more than twenty years large works have been in progress on the Lower Mississippi, designed to protect the bottom-lands from overflow and to improve the navigation of the river. Nearly a hundred million dollars have been spent on these works, but the channel of the river is no deeper now than when they were started, and the overflow, shut out of large areas, has raised the floods in the river to levels that menace the whole valley. Yet the overflow could have been taken into a system of reservoirs at the head of the valley, giving the bottom-lands a certain flood protection; and emptying the reservoirs on the low waters of the river would have tripled its navigable depth, while the cost of this work would have been about half of what has been spent on the river.

In the upper part of the valley, between the river and the western highlands, there is a division of the bottom-lands nearly two hundred miles long and forty miles wide. This is the first of the great "basins" in the Lower Mississippi valley. Here the river lies close to the bluffs on the east side of the valley, and crosses to the western highlands at the foot of the basin.

The river overflows its banks and floods this basin on an average of about one year

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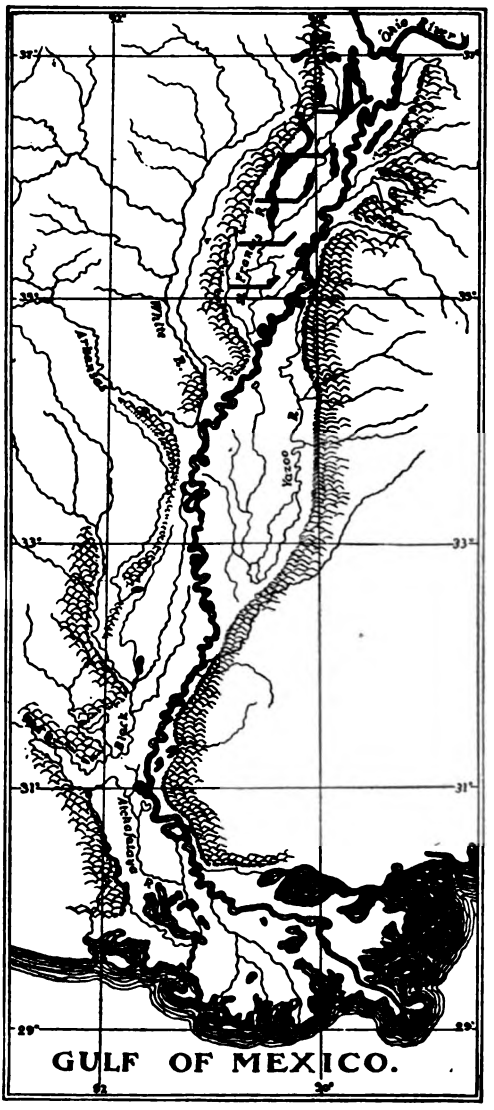

RESERVOIR SYSTEM FOR THE MISSISSIPPI RIVER.

out of three. The turbid waters drop the bulk of their silts where they leave the river, until they build up the banks to a grade that will carry the silt farther inland. The banks thus form the rim of the basin; and the ground slopes down into the back lands which sink twenty to thirty feet below the level of the ground near the river.

The reservoir system would be made by building embankments across the low bottom-lands in the back of this basin. Altogether, the system would form a chain of lakes in the back lands, rising in steps one above another, from the foot of the basin to the head of the valley. The overflow would then be turned into these lakes and let out as required. In the place of nature's extremes of flow there would be intelligent control of the river.

Such a reservoir system would draw down the extreme floods of the Lower Mississippi to the level of a bank-full river. It would give all the bottom-lands an equal flood protection for a thousand years, when silts would fill up the lakes and new works would be required. Emptying the reservoirs in the low water period would raise the low water level in the river about fifteen feet, and in place of eight-foot depths at low water, gulf boats drawing twenty feet could come up the river.

The Lower Mississippi stands in a class by itself. Flood and low water extremes differ greatly in different rivers; and regulating the flow is a special question of their drainage systems. But the Lower Mississippi drains the interior of the United States from the Rockies to the Alleghanies. It gets its flow from widely different sources with floods in different seasons. Thus its low water lasts but a few months in the year; and as far as is known, it is the only river in the world where the back of one of its alluvial basins will hold the overflow.

Levees are the general form of flood protection, and a levee system has been built up on the Lower Mississippi. The levee is an earth embankment built along the rim of a basin to shut out the overflow. All the bottom-lands slope away from the river and the delta basins drain off into the gulf. In the valley the drainage of the basin joins the hill drainage to form a stream in the back lands, which enters the river at the foot of the basin. To close the basin a levee is built along the river front, shutting out all the floodwater down to the foot of the basin. The foot of the basin is left open for an outlet to its drainage and is flooded with backwater.

The Lower Mississippi levee system had no precedent. The levee on the rim of one of its basins closed a high-water spillway two hundred miles long; and the backwater at the foot filled but a small fraction of the basin. There were wide differences of opinion in anticipating the effects of this levee system. But the back lands in the valley were uninhabitable; for

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months at a time they were a sea of flood-waters thirty miles wide. Opinions naturally shaped themselves to the requirements of shutting out the flood-waters and reclaiming these rich bottom-lands.

To build the long lines of levee called for collective effort. The work developed State control and finally enlisted national aid. Levee districts were formed with organizations to tax the lands and build the levees. As a part in its plan of improving the river, the Government contributed to the work, beginning by closing outlets in the delta, and ending by sharing the cost of building up a complete levee system.

The levee system began down in the delta, protecting the lower basins first. As it was carried up the valley, closing the basins in succession, it raised the flood levels of the river in something like a geometric ratio. With each extension of the system upstream, the pent-up flood-waters burst through the levees all down the river, and the embankments had to be raised and strengthened in increasing proportions.

The levees were cutting off the great natural reservoir system in the basins of the Lower Mississippi valley. Here the overflow in the basins takes altogether about two months to reach the gulf; while the crest of a flood passes down the river in less than two weeks. With the basins closed, a serious concentration of the flood-waters was inevitable. The final effect of the complete levee system is to raise the extreme flood levels in the river about seven to nine feet, through the greater part of the valley.

CREVASSE BELOW GREENVILLE, MISS., MADE BY THE FLOOD OF 1903.
The view is taken from the upstream end of broken levee, which convict laborers are strengthening with bags of soil.

Where the flood-waters once went over the rim of the basins in depths of two or three feet, they will now stand on it in depths of nine to twelve feet, held in by the levees. With the great river to draw from on one side of the levee, and a cultivated valley on the other, sinking, it may be, thirty feet into the back lands, a break in the levee is now most serious.

The embankment itself may be made safe enough; but in places the soil on which it is built is almost floated; when the water falls the bottom strata run out, and wide areas sink into the river. The

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levee is built some distance back from the banks, and a line may stand for a lifetime; but in each flood there are places where new lines must be built at once before the old levee caves into the river. The flood-water also oozes up through the soil back of the levee, and with little warning may burst through anywhere in a leak that, if not stopped, will quickly engulf the embankment. And altogether there are about fifteen hundred miles of this in the levee system.

The Lower Mississippi levee system is a work that, with great care and enough money, may be made effective, and the value of the bottom-lands justifies the cost. But if it were a business proposition, capital would either do more or do nothing with the enterprise. With its responsibility for damages, private capital could hardly take the risks in the levee system as it is. And a private enterprise would never have put the cost of the reservoir system finally out of its reach, by closing the upper basin and turning its back lands into farms.

While closing outlets down in the delta, the overflow, held in the river, had the effect of clearing out the channel. But in the valley the effect was different. The Mississippi, with its silts, has built the delta out into the gulf level. Here it fills up side channels and concentrates its flow until it has the force to carry the sediment through to its mouth. In the delta the river is narrow and deep, in the valley it is wide and shallow. The flow is not too weak in the valley, but too strong, and it cuts down its banks and spreads its channel.

In the valley the river is a succession of pools and shallows. There is deep water in the pools, but only about eight feet on the shallows in low water; and that is the navigable depth of the river. The flood tears down the banks, carries the detritus through the pools, and drops it in bars on the wide sections between them. Through the bars the low water flow works shifting channels which are obliterated in the next high water.

The plan for improving the river was to narrow the wide sections and thus deepen the bar channels. A bank line would be laid out for such a section and new banks could be built up there. Mere skeletons of piling, that framed the areas to be filled in, would catch the drift, throw down the overload of silts in the turbid waters, and build up the new banks in a season. But the detritus torn down by the floods must build up somewhere. In a few years the new bank might be a quarter of a mile inland, or the river might cut in behind it, and the piling would be in the middle of the channel. The real difficulty was to hold the banks and fix the river in place; for the valley along its course is furrowed with the landmarks of abandoned channels.

Holding the banks of the Lower Mississippi, from the first, was a grim fight with the currents of the river, and in the end the river always conquered.

The power in the Lower Mississippi flood is more than ten times the power of Niagara; and it may be assumed that it will take its own course down its alluvial valley. Turned and looped on the incline, the river has worked out a course about a thousand miles long and a mile wide, and in this it rises and falls about fifty feet between its low and high waters. The whole course is an area of drifting sands and caving banks that shift with the changing flow continually. There is but one known way to fix all this, and that is to regulate the flow, for a fixed flow will work out for itself a fixed channel in any alluvial valley. Other improvements may be possible, but their works will have more than fifty million horse-power to reckon with, and so far, the millions put into improving the river have had no real effect on it. The reservoir system would weaken the stupendous power of the river from above; and this is just what is needed. Nothing seems more absurd than to try to fight the river only near its mouth, where its whole strength must be encountered. The force of the river has to be broken by attacking it farther up. Reservoirs at several points would hold enough water in captivity to render the lower levees superfluous.

The case of the Indian who tied a rope round his waist and lassoed the locomotive practically sums up the lesson of twenty years' work on the Lower Mississippi; the plans of that Indian were logical enough, but the locomotive was too big for them.

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COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY, ON MORNINGSIDE HEIGHTS, NEW YORK CITY.

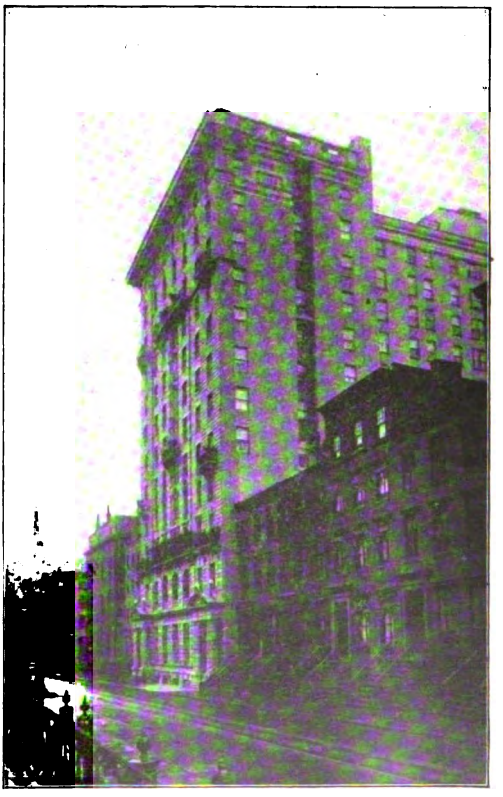
City Characters: New York.*

BY

ELTWEED POMEROY, M. A.

NEW YORK, the largest city on this continent, the second largest in the world, and, if its suburbs in New Jersey and Connecticut are included, probably the largest in the world, is, like all cities of the first class, extremely cosmopolitan. A city that contains more Irish than Dublin, more Italians than Florence, more Poles than Warsaw, more Jews than Jerusalem, would unite, one would think, all their characteristics so as to have no definite character of its own; yet a great city must draw these varied peoples to it by its own vigor. It is attractive to the people that come to it; and their coming develops in them the city's qualities by which they were attracted to it. Hence, every great city, unless it be decaying, has a vivid personality. Great size may prevent us from seeing it. The visitor to London is almost always oppressed at first by its size, and it seems only a conglomeration. Great bulk always hinders a view as a whole, yet it is necessary to view as a whole in order to gain a correct idea of character.

Caricaturists must have a very quick and keen insight into salient characteristics or they cannot make a good caricature. Few of our cities have been honored by a caricature, but we are all familiar with the Father Knickerbocker of Puck, Judge, Life, and many other papers. Blaine, I think it was, once said that a man was not really a public man until his portrait had



HOTEL MARTHA WASHINGTON, NEW YORK CITY.
This hotel is reserved for the accommodation of women.

NOTE. The introductory article on the Individuality of Cities was printed in June issue. Articles on other cities are to follow.

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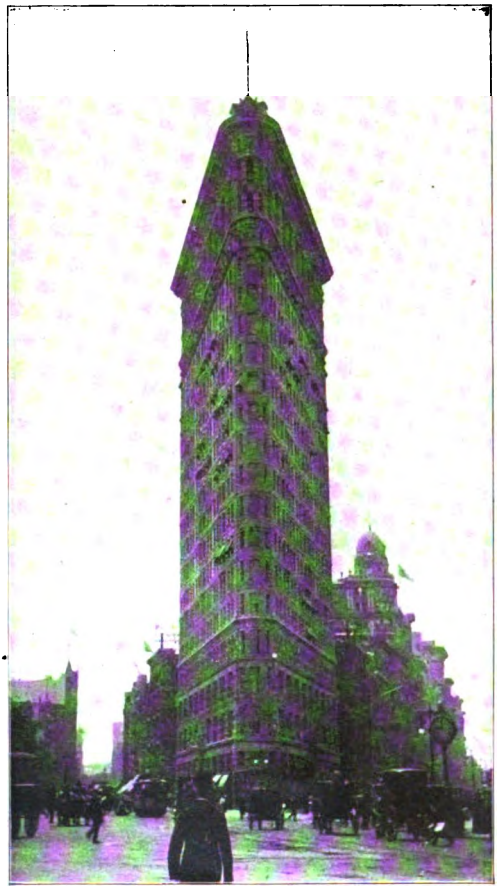
been made funny in the comic papers. Under this definition, New York has surely arrived. In these, New York is represented sometimes as a genial, but generally as an irascible, vigorous old gentleman of Dutch extraction. His hair is white, and he usually carries a cane, but he is always well-attired, dignified, and vigorous. He looks prosperous, hale, energetic. Even the slightly bombastic figure that an enterprising Chicago newspaper had designed to represent that city's strenuous personality, is not more vigorous than the caricatures of New York. In Chicago's case, the portrayal of the vigor was a boast; with New York, it was the unconscious selection by keen-witted men of a salient characteristic. Whatever New York does, it does with vigor.



A FREAK OF MODERN ARCHITECTURE.
The Flatiron office building in New York.

The second characteristic of New York is her dignity. She is long past the callow period of boasting. When she has a deed to do, she does it on a large scale as a matter of course, but she does not care to seize opportunities of advertising herself—such are beneath her dignity and unnecessary. Her own imperial position, beauty, and advantages are sufficient. Civic pride is a common thing in our land; but it seems to me that New Yorkers have a stronger and deeper-rooted pride in their home city than the dwellers in any other city in the country, though this feeling is below the surface, rarely recognized as pride, and rarely talked about. It shows itself in action.

Civic pride must not be confounded with conscious civic activity and work. They often go together, but are not necessarily the same. In a small community, one man or a small, coherent group of men may easily rouse a town's activity and keep it going for a while. New York is too big for that. Its activity and life are not the work of one man or one set of men at the top, but it is organic and almost silent and largely sub-conscious. In my opinion, the factory hand, the street car conductor, the very street cleaner at his work in New York, feels more that he has and is a part of the imperial dignity of that city than the same class in any other large city. To be sure, there are more suburbanites whose business interests are in New York, but whose homes and voting places lie outside, than in any other large city, and this circumstance removes a very valuable class. Yet civic life is there, and because New York is so big, it is mainly a sub-conscious, organic growth from below, instead of, as in some smaller cities, a conscious, often boastful creation of those at the top.

New York is a beautiful city to approach, either coming up the Narrows from the Ocean with the magnificent spread of bay and rivers and the picturesquely piled city on its narrow island, or across the Jersey flats and the North River ferries, or coming by rail down the lovely Hudson with only a short distance of slums and then stupendous, serried rows of solid brownstone and brick houses. To get a favorable idea of Chicago and many other large cities, a visitor ought to be blindfolded while he enters, or he will think the city everywhere equally squalid. Not so with New York.

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BROOKLYN BRIDGE SEEN FROM NEW YORK.

Though a beautiful city, New York is a loveless one. Downtown, the buildings not devoted to Commerce are so few and insignificant in comparison as not to count. Never has the world seen such a number of buildings devoted wholly to money-getting. Never so few buildings bodying forth an ideal. These palaces of commerce are structures of great size and dignity, but they body forth power with-

THE OLD AND THE NEW IN NEW YORK.
Washington Building, Produce Exchange, and Elevated Station.

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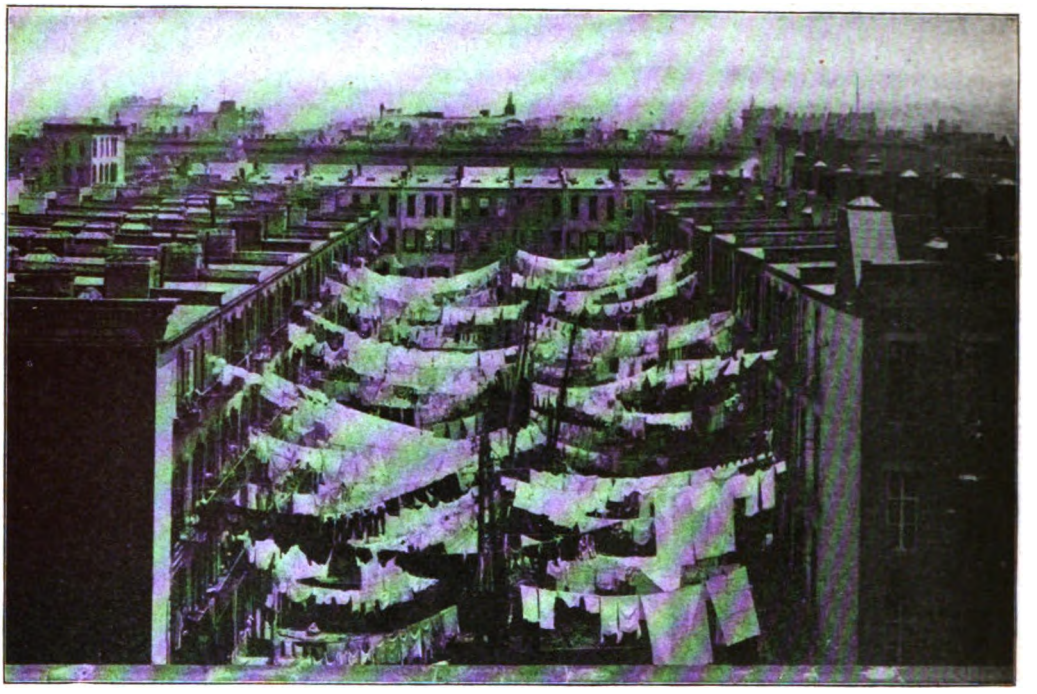

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DRYING CLOTHES IN TENEMENT YARDS, NEW YORK CITY.

out pity, strength without sympathy. Not even the pyramids of Egypt produce such an effect of stupendous, overwhelming, at least unhuman, if not inhuman power. To the searcher for something other than money, they have a depressing effect. Uptown there are no homes. There are only tenements, boarding houses, and palaces. Only the very poor, the transient, and the very rich can afford to live inside New York City. If a man wants a home, he must go over to Jersey, or up the Hudson or over on Long Island. Economic conditions have driven the great middle class, home-living and home-loving, outside of her boundaries. She is a homeless city.

Hence, power is a stronger characteristic than beauty, although New York is a beautiful city. A tongue of land varying in width from a quarter of a mile to two miles, between strong, deep currents of life-giving water, necessarily has pure, clear air, easy drainage, and easy sanitation. Though its sky-scrapers are higher and more numerous than those of Chicago, the streets' canon bottoms do not impress one with that damp, noisome, musty sensation felt in the city by the Lakes. From its situation, New York is necessarily concentrated and its streets and buildings lack space and margin, which is the last and the absolutely necessary touch for supreme architectural beauty and effect. New York can never be the superbly beautiful city that Washington is. Yet where she has spread out her palaces along Fifth Avenue and in the new part along the Hudson on Riverside Drive, she has taken space enough to make a noble effect. The New York woman has the reputation of being the best dressed in the world, and the same is true of the city. It is stately, dignified, splendid, even if cramped and not very human.

There is an agreeable flavor of Dutch solidity, but it is not much more than a flavor. The prevailing tone is commercial power. There is no other street in the world like Broadway. Short streets in other great cities may equal and, in some few blocks, even surpass Broadway; but as a whole, there is nothing like it elsewhere in its length of stately buildings, its evidences of keen, commercial insight and vigor, and in the splendid sweep of its pulsing tides of life. New York has its slums, just as its history contains a Tweed; but even these are on a large scale, and

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they are recognized but as the almost necessary excrescences of rapid growth and great power. She has already begun a legal campaign of amelioration of these slums and her vigor has thrown off Tweed and the Tammany rule whenever it became too bad. and taken it back when the opposition to Tammany developed faults that Tammany did not have so that it too became unbearable. Parts of Brooklyn and Jersey City repeat the elegance and stateliness of the main city, and the Oranges, Montclair, etc., on the highlands of New Jersey, and the cities up the Hudson for twenty or thirty miles are the sleeping rooms and the breathing places of New York, constituting the most extended and lovely suburban section in the world.

Though the dominant characteristic of New York is commercial power, love of splendor is not lacking. J. Pierpont Morgan, who, perhaps, typifies commercial New York better at present than any other one man, not only knows how to make money, but he is also a judge of paintings, tapestries, and fine books; and he buys, owns, and enjoys them. So New York draws to it literary men, artists, and architects as well as business men and merchants and she pays them well. New York is the biggest publisher of books on this continent, and supports the Metropolitan Opera, which is certainly finer than any opera elsewhere in our country. The city is not stingy of its resources, but is an opulent, well-fed, richly clothed, hale, and vigorous elder with many years of energetic life before him, slow to move, perhaps, on small matters, and slow to correct abuses peculiarly his own, but keen and far-sighted on the great chances and quick to to seize and utilize them and fond of splendor. (For additional illustrations see front of this issue.)

OLD DOCTRINE DRIFTING.—Besides the age-long overt conflict between the conservative and progressive in religion, as indeed in every other form of human culture, there is a covert movement of conservatism itself which becomes apparent only after the change has been effected. One such change may require centuries for consummation, whereas another may be observed within a single lifetime, as Rev. J. P. Mahaffy, D. D., professor of Greek in the University of Dublin, claims has been the case in the evangelical section of the Irish Church within his own memory. Thus, whereas he had once heard one of its clergymen assert the verbal inspiration of even the English translation of the Bible, nowadays he found that by tacit consent verbal inspiration was not enforced from the pulpit. Again, whereas half a century ago preachers insisted on eternal perdition for the lost with bliss immediately consequent upon death for the elect, they now seem agreed not to discuss the matter openly; and the change has wrought no moral disaster.

"It may be that the recollections of the morning of life assume roseate hues, and that therefore I am wrong in thinking that there existed in evangelical Dublin forty-five years ago a group of eminent Christians who by their life and preaching showed forth the gospel very differently from its representatives nowadays. This is nevertheless my strong impression, and it may be due to the fact that the leading spirits among the young men of that day were enlisted for the ministry, whereas now they turn to other paths of life. But even to me with these strong impressions of the saintly character of the evangelical leaders of a former generation, it does not appear that the average life of the church is now in any way inferior to that of those puritanical people. Doctrine seems less important, heresies more easily condoned, the external duties of religion not so strictly observed—the whole complexion of the ordinary Christian life has drifted away from the old ideal—but we may believe and trust that this religious world has not grown really worse."

Dr. Mahaffy proceeds to show how belief in heaven has faded along with belief in hell, so that joyous deathbed scenes are no longer common. He concludes by declaring that, even without future rewards and punishments, Christianity is greater and better than worldliness, or selfishness, or idleness. "Is it an argument worthy of so great a system of life, to urge it mainly as a security for our future condition, and not as a rule, perfect and noble, for our conduct in this life, of which we feel and know the reality?" Or has the Church yet to adopt the conception of the simple continuance, in the life hereafter, of moral government as the same is known in this life?

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The Old World in the New Century.

BY

WILLIAM E. BARTON, D. D.

WE were standing on deck the fourth day out, after the novelty of the situation had worn off, and we were sure of our footing and able to give some thought to things in the immediate future.

"How much of a proposition is Jerusalem, anyhow?" asked one member of the group.

There was something almost shockingly direct about the question. It was asked in a semi-confidential way, and in entire good faith. There was something in the tone which indicated that the questioner rather thought that he ought to know the answer without asking, but there was also the emphatic determination to put the question, and face the facts. The questioner was a leather-dealer, and the men addressed were ministers of the gospel, who might be supposed to know the proper answer.

"How much of a proposition is Jerusalem?" It had not always been a "proposition" to my leather-dealing friend; it had been a mental concept, and it was facing him now in a new role. He was endeavoring to approach it as a reality.

My esteemed friend of the hides and leather had heard of Jerusalem all his life, but it had been to him a fact in history and a sentiment associated with his reading and singing and aspiratioin. He now wanted some information which would enable him to reduce it all to acres and population. He was doing in his own way what we all were attempting. We had sung for years:

> "Jerusalem, my happy home,
> Name ever dear to me;
> When shall my labors have an end,
> Thy joys when shall I see?"

We had sung it of the new Jerusalem, and were about to have an answer in the Jerusalem of earth. The holy city of history, the glorious vision of an iridescent future, all that we had known and thought and felt when we heard the name Jerusalem, were reduced to a definite day in the week and month, duly scheduled on our itinerary. We were about to tread its narrow streets with our own feet, and from some point of vantage within its gated walls to see with our own eyes how "the mountains are round about Jerusalem." This was something different from singing about it. I felt grateful to my friend from the world of business and practical affairs for his question. He found himself, as he expressed it "up against" a wholly new situation, and wanted to know "how much of a proposition" it was.

We who had set out to materialize this vision were a company of Americans touring the Mediterranean on a chartered ship, the CELTIC. There were 830 of us. We were 377 men, 438 women, and 15 children, besides a crew of 390, making a total of 1,220. It was the largest party of its kind that ever entered the Mediterranean and the CELTIC was the largest ship afloat. Not since Noah built his ark had so great a ship been seen. We had set out to reverse the voyage of Columbus and learn whether toward the sunrise there is any old world discoverable by inhabitants of the new.

Short as the time was, it gave us a bird's-eye view of Madeira, for whose beauty no previous description had at all prepared us; a look at Gibralter, which impresses the imagination as a mute personification of the British lion guarding the Mediterranean; a glimpse of Algiers, with its memories of buccaneers and its present picturesqueness; a little visit to Malta, with its stirring associations with mailed knights and with the heroic apostle who was shipwrecked here; a bowing acquaintance with Athens, where we realized all our anticipations of ancient, and more than

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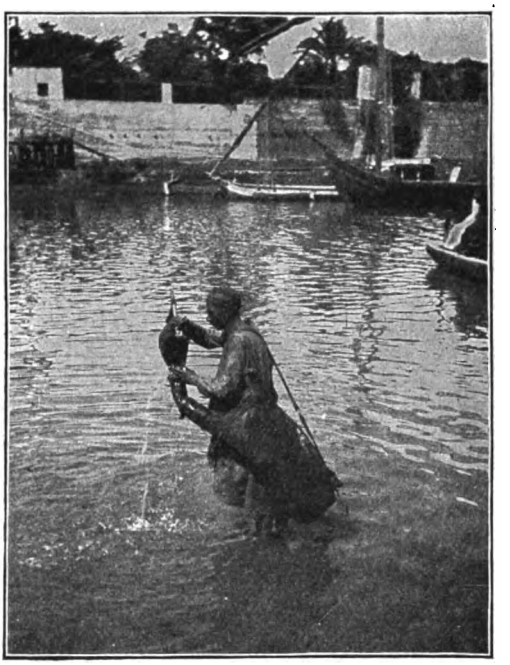
all expectations of modern, Greece; a peep into Constantinople, where the might and pride of the Turk exhibit their insecure arrogance, and a snapshot at Smyrna and Ephesus. These, which presented before us an almost bewildering variety, were yet but preliminary to our main tour of Palestine and Egypt, and these were supplemented by a flying tour across Europe. I have told the story of that cruise in the book whose title corresponds with that of this article.

There were few members of our party who did not fall a victim to the label habit. Those who proved themselves exceptions to the rule prided themselves on their strength of character or sheer obstinacy. Every hotel where we were quartered, anxious to advertise itself by the travel of tourists, sought opportunity to paste labels on all baggage that passed through the hands of its porters. The tourists watched their baggage with increasing satisfaction as each piece took on the character of Joseph's coat. Those tourists who were wise laid in a supply of unattached labels and saved them for future needs. There were some of us—I was among the number—who quite despised this label habit, and thought it a vain and foolish thing to carry around a bag which proclaimed that the owner had visited such and such foreign cities; so I stopped the porter in each of our first hotels as he stood with uplifted pastebrush in one hand and label in the other, and said, "Stick no labels on my bag!" I carried through the first part of the journey a satchel that was guiltless of any contamination from hotel labels. But I am now writing my confession that I did not maintain this resolution to the end. Everywhere we went some of our party were sure to ask: "Did you not get any hotel labels in Athens? I meant to, but we were there so short a time that I forgot it. Have you one to spare?" So at length I began to gather a very few out of pure benevolence, as I assured myself; but already Satan was at work in the matter, and I was beginning to fall a victim. About this time I ceased to forbid the porter to do his pasting, and as



WATER-CARRIER IN EGYPT.

ONE DONKEY AND HIS LOAD IN EGYPT.

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RESULT OF AN ATTEMPT TO PHOTOGRAPH ONE NAZARETH GIRL.

the end of the journey drew near, and my bag showed labels from some of the cities of Europe, I began to regard it somewhat ruefully in comparison with those whose luggage showed that they had been in Oriental ports. I was not the only convert. All over the ship were foolish virgins who had taken no labels for their bags, who now began to come to the wise and say: "Give us of your labels, for our own have given out." Such an exchange of labels, and such a borrowing of paste as characterized the end of the voyage. As the good ship drew near the shore, and the luggage began to come out, there was hardly a mother's son or daughter among us whose dress-suit case or portmanteau would not have shamed the rainbow, or cast into the shade a crazy quilt.

All this was well enough while we were together, and the only sorrow of the owner of a bedecked carpet-bag was that he did not have more labels, or more space on his bag; but it was somewhat different when we began to scatter, and each tourist had to face the cold world alone, and live up to his luggage. I give my own experience, which I dare say is fairly typical.

I was leaving New York City and had got as far as the ferry, no matter how, without any undue mortification by reason of my bag. I set down the brilliant article against a post in the waiting-room, while I stepped across to get a time-table; and as I turned back I saw two men examining my bag. They stood on one side of it and read every label on that side, and then walked around to the other side and read the labels through. I waited and gave them time. Having completed their inventory of the hotels where I had stayed, they walked reverently away. Then three ladies summoned courage to walk up to it. They approached it as near as they dared, and went off saying how they would like to visit the places to whose existence the bag bore witness. I thought I would rather not walk up and claim the bag just after so many people had been inspecting it; so, as there was plenty of time, I stood and waited. There was no danger of losing the bag, for there was probably not a man in the waiting-room excepting myself, who had courage enough to walk off with it. While we waited, almost every person present, under pretext of exercise, or without any excuse whatever, took a walk across the waiting-room and gave my decorated satchel a more or less minute inspection. It began to occur to me that I should never be comfortable on the train until I secured a new satchel; for, said I to myself, "If they do such things in the green tree, what will they do in the dry? If in New York and within a biscuit's throw of salt water, women show such reverence and men such possibly contemptuous attention to a bag that has been to Egypt and Jerusalem and certain other places, what will it be when I reach the interior?"

When I got on the cars there were people who went down the aisle and were tempted to sit down with me, but looked at that bag and passed on. I got home at last, and it is now safely housed in the attic, where it attracts little attention. Whether I shall have the courage to take it upon the train at any future time remains to be seen. The moral of this tale is, get your labels early and put them on as you like. You can buy a new bag if you want to, but there will be a momentous hour near the end of the voyage when you might as well appear at an Oriental marriage without a wedding garment, as to come on deck with a bag that has no labels. But in the first lonely hour when you

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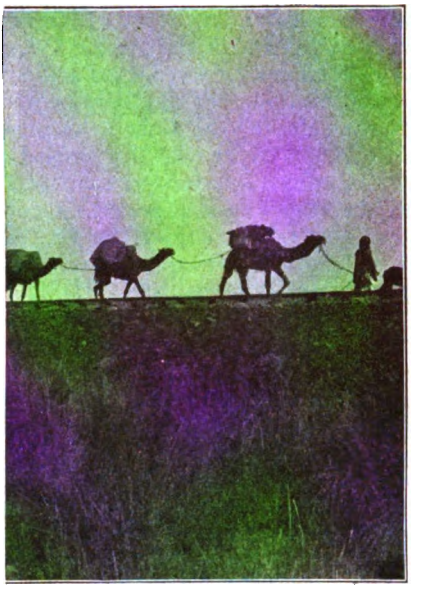
board the train with a satchel that proclaims your itinerary in a shrieking chorus of color, you will wish you had dropped it overboard outside the harbor.

There is something to be said in favor of superficial sightseeing. It is common enough to read in some pretentious works of travel the little jibes and slurs at tourists who "do" a city in twenty-four hours, and a continent in a fortnight. The least thing to be said in favor of rapid sightseeing is that a superficial visit to historic scenes is far better than none at all, and that most people who do their sight-seeing rapidly choose not between that and the more leisurely method, but between that and no visit at all. This, however, is not all that can be said in favor of a pilgrimage on the rapid-transit plan. He who has a short time to spend and knows it often hurries to the scenes of real importance and of striking interest, while those with more time at their disposal sometimes employ it in desultory sightseeing with comparatively little method and purpose, and so lose in the mass of detail that which is distinctive. All in all, it is far better to see things in a leisurely way, as everyone knows; but those who have the leisure and the money to remain long in a place and see it to their heart's content, too often look with thinly veiled contempt upon those who may be getting the essential features of that which they have come to see. One gets out of a tour very much in proportion to what he brings to it. He who has done little reading, and who goes from place to place with languid interest, may squander much time and have little to show for it beyond his purchases in the bazaars; but he who has some real knowledge of the points visited may obtain in quick succession the most striking features of many different places. Wherefore, let not him who goes abroad often, and tarries long at each place of historic interest or artistic fame, despise him who takes a brief vacation in a hop-skip-and-jump manner. The latter may be taking a series of snapshots that will develop in later months.

I do not like to read books of travel; that is why I have written one. I have suffered many things from books that have explained at length the things I do not want to know, and taken for granted those in which I am particularly interested, so I have written a book not for the man who goes abroad to live a year in a place, but for him who has to hustle, and wants to know in short order how things are going to look to him in each place when he gets there, and for him who cannot go, and wants to see how it would look if he could. The chief merit of the book, in my judgment, is that the author does not know too much about the places described. The book is moderately full of half-tone pictures, some from photographs I bought, and others from snapshots made on the tour. The snapshots vary in quality, for a man takes a snapshot as he does a wife, for better or for worse, but they average well.



LIGHTNING EXPRESS TO GALILEE.

(The preceding graphic sketch invites to perusal of the entire work, "The Old World in the New Century," with 240 illustrations and 487 pages, octavo, which is published by The Pilgrim Press, Boston and Chicago.)

PACIFIC CABLE.—The new American Pacific cable was formally opened on July 4, by a message from President Roosevelt to Governor W. H. Taft of the Philippines at Manila, as follows: "I open the American Pacific cable with greetings to you and the people of the Philippines. Theodore Roosevelt." This message was

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soon followed by another to Clarence H. Mackay, president of the Pacific Commercial Cable Company, over the Pacific cable and then through Asia and Europe to New York, thus circling the globe in 12 minutes. Mr. Mackay's reply was forwarded over the same cables but moved eastward and established the round-the-world record of 9½ minutes. Its route lay by way of the Azores, Gibraltar, Suez, Bombay, Madras, Singapore, Hongkong, and Manila, over older cables, and thence over the new one through Guam, Midway Island, Honolulu, and San Francisco. This journey of 25,835 miles could be made by the cablegram in less than one-eighth of a second, provided the various cables were connected; but, as it is, the relays at several places require nearly ten minutes. Still Puck's promise, "I'll put a girdle round the earth in forty minutes," has been more than fulfilled. Of the total mileage, over one half, namely, 14,600 miles from the Azores to Hongkong, belongs to America, the rest belongs to Great Britain; which country moreover has a complete circuit around the world, since in 1902 it connected Vancouver, B. C., and Australia by a cable via Fanning Island and the Fiji Islands.

The new Pacific cable saves 3,000 miles from New York to the Philippines as compared with the old route via the Azores, which furthermore required 15 relays whereas now only 4 are necessary. The cable cost $15,000,000 and owed everything except its actual laying down to John W. Mackay, who died a few weeks before the first shipload of cable left England for the Pacific, after which the work was ably taken up by his son, Clarence H. Mackay. The average depth through the Pacific Ocean is three miles, but with great fluctuations, so that the cable must be made strong enough to withstand the great strain of its own weight when being laid, as well as durable under the peculiar conditions at ocean bottom. In the center is a twelve-wire strand copper core, covered with heavy gutta percha insulation. Wrapped about this are eight plies of manila and asphalt, which in turn are covered by the armor of 22.12-gauge galvanized steel wires. Over all is a second covering of manila and wrapping of asphalt, making a cable only seven-eighths of an inch in diameter over all.

The new cable will prove invaluable for both naval and commercial purposes, if American supremacy on the Pacific is to become more than an ambition. It counterbalances the Siberian telegraphic connection of Russia with the Orient, and will doubtless many a time thwart Muscovite aggressions, territorial and commercial, in the far East. (See Vol. IV., pages 10 and 164.)

PLAGUE IN THE PHILIPPINES CONQUERED.—The United States has waged as relentless war on the bubonic plague in the Philippines as it did on yellow fever in Cuba, and its labors have been crowned with complete success. The credit for this victory over a malignant disease belongs to Dr. F. R. Meacham, Chief Health Inspector, and his asistants.

"On account of the important part which house rats are known to play in the distribution of bubonic plague," says the *National Geographic Magazine* (May, 1903), "a systematic campaign was inaugurated against these rodents in Manila. Policemen, sanitary inspectors, and specially appointed rat-catchers were furnished with traps and poison, and both traps and poison were distributed to private individuals under proper restrictions. A bounty was paid for all rats turned over to the health authorities, and stations were established at convenient points throughout the city where they could be received. *Each rat was tagged with the street and number of the building* or lot from which it came, was dropped into a strong antiseptic solution, and eventually sent to the Biological Laboratory, where it was subjected to a bacteriological examination for plague." Thus the Board of Health officers could trace the disease to its secret haunts. Several hundred thousand rats were killed by poison and 60,000 were caught and tagged.

A permanent detention camp was established, and the sick were removed thither, if practicable, to guard against the spread of infection. Plague houses were disinfected and renovated so as to exclude rats. Hundreds of shacks were burned. In January, 1902, the work of inoculating with the Shiga antipestic vaccine was begun, and within two months over 25,000 persons were thus rendered immune.

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Playgrounds for Children.

BY

KATHERINE LOUISE SMITH.

IT IS a pathetic thing that many children in cities do not know how to play or how to name the kinds of flowers. These are two of the reasons why summer playgrounds are desirable. Another reason is that in the sphere of prevention no work is so helpful. Some form of recreation is necessary for the health and morals of children and out door games supply this. They prevent the crimes that arise from misdirected energy. For these reasons vacant lots and public school grounds have been utilized in some cities, and the success is so great that other places are adopting the same method. Philadelphia, for instance, has tried the plan of using twenty-five school yards for playgrounds with satisfactory results.

Though as early as 1872 an initial proposal for a vacation school was made in Cambridge, and in the same year Brookline, Massachusetts, established a playground, the American movement originated in the municipal sand piles provided by Boston, in 1887. At this time sand piles were places in school yards, tenement courts, and every other available space. Thence the movement spread to other cities and took on various forms according to local conditions. For several years the grounds of certain public schools in New York City have been open to children, while the piers are utilized in summer by building summer houses over them, thus affording an opportunity for sick and poor children to inhale the pure salt breeze.

It is interesting to note that a young Bulgarian of the name of Tsanoff, who

CHILDREN'S PLAYGROUND AT MINNEAPOLIS, MINN.

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came to this country to prepare himself for missionary work among his countrymen, became so impressed with the ill manners of the boys on the streets that he decided to redeem these toughs instead of returning to his own land. Through him the Culture Extension League was organized in Philadelphia. As it consisted of philanthropists, editors, ministers, and business men, who pledged themselves to forward the movement, twenty-three playgrounds were soon opened, and Mr. Tsanoff had a chance to devote himself to the problem of saving boys by this means. So great was his success that other cities model their attempts on this initial movement.

An interesting phase of this work exists at Pittsburgh, where the children's summer playgrounds have been open for six years under the auspices of the women's clubs. Twelve playgrounds are in active service, and an appropriation of several thousand dollars enables children from the wee baby up to boys and girls of fifteen, or over, to devote the morning hours to pleasure. A prominent feature of these playgrounds is the story hour, when a trained librarian from the Carnegie library visits the grounds and tells nature stories or fairy tales to the children, who absorb them eagerly. Though methods differ in localities according to the ingenuity of the leaders and the amount of money, few cities have better equipped playgrounds than Chicago. A Special Park Commission maintains eight playgrounds in crowded districts and spends much money in improvements. All are equipped with apparatus such as ladders, turning poles, rings, and parallel bars. Swings are in every available spot, and completely arranged shelter-buildings include a sand court for babies, a playground with seats and toilet conveniences. When a disturbing boy gets in, the children who are regular attendants are the first to quiet him. A trained kindergartner is in attendance six hours of the day to lead the children in game and occupations. The Webster School has a running track and baseball and football grounds with a trained instructor free to all. Up to the present time one hundred thousand dollars' worth of land has been utilized for playground purposes, forty thousand dollars expended, and this year will see various improvements in the way of swimming tanks, vines, flowers, bathhouses, etc. Most of these grounds are in crowded districts, one being under an elevated railroad. The

CHILDREN'S PLAYGROUND AT MINNEAPOLIS, MINN.

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Northwestern University in the same place is undertaking a similar movement and has one playground which accommodates five thousand children who have no other playground.

The movement in Minneapolis, conducted on the Pittsburgh lines, was carried on under the auspices of the Improvement League. During the season the little tots lie in hammocks while the older children make dolldresses and other things that interest them. Basketry, sewing, music, cooking, manual training receive attention, and much time is devoted to nature study, that the children may learn the different kinds of flowers, many of which, especially the wild varieties, they have never seen. Several unique features attract the children, such as hemming six handkerchiefs to obtain one, and making a waist that can be purchased for a few cents after completion. Boys and girls alike learn to sew, beginning with simple patchwork and advancing to intricate stitches. Because it would be impossible to supply dolls for every child, each girl is allowed about a half an hour with a doll. Swings are used in order. This arrangement forms an incentive to get to the playground early, teaches the children to respect the rights of others, and to know the value of time.

St. Louis, in her preparations for the coming World's Fair, has organized a tremendous improvement league, appropriated money for vacation schools, set aside large tracts of land for the same, and has even set the children to cleaning streets and premises, on days set aside for the work. Other cities are following the lead of those mentioned and municipal playgrounds will soon become necessities. All places find it a good plan to let the children work about the grounds and help keep them presentable, for it fosters a spirit of proprietorship and pride. In some places, as in Chicago, the grounds are converted into skating rinks in winter.

These municipal playgrounds have passed the experimental stage. Some of the best behaved children on the playgrounds are those who loafed on the streets and were nuisances generally. They are living examples of the theory that a great deal of vice among the young is simply misdirected energy, the overflow of youthful spirits in wrong directions.

POLITICS, PROFESSORSHIPS OF.—At the semi-centennial of the famous Yale class of '55, Hon. Andrew D. White, ex-president of Cornell and recent ambassador to Germany, made an eloquent plea for professorships of politics in American universities to train young men for officeholding, also for a more intelligent and efficient participation in public affairs. Speaking on the subject, "A Paying Investment," he urged the need of a greater number of liberally educated men holding office, and he called upon American millionaires to give $14,000,000 to found chairs and fellowships for the preparation of students to become legislators, administrators, diplomats, consuls, and other public officials.

Mr. White's idea is to promote the study of politics in the best sense, with the view of producing a superior body of men to serve their city, State, and country in positions of honor and responsibility. These men should be imbued with the highest ideals of citizenship and be intellectually equipped for the performance of their duties. Once started in a public career, they should go on making a lifelong study of municipal and political problems.

To provide better opportunities for acquiring the art of government, Dr. White would have the following endowments:

(1) Professorships and scholarships in twenty-five leading universities of the United States bearing upon public affairs; (2) professorships and scholarships of comparative administration; (3) professorships and fellowships in international law; (4) professorships and fellowships in the history of civilization and political ethics; (5) professorships and fellowships in U. S. history, also drawing on the humanizing influences of literature and art to promote enlightened patriotism; (6) professorships of music in the largest sense of the word.

The New York *Evening Post*, commenting on the plan, holds that it is "a present-day requirement," but declares that obviously "no system of expert training will alone suffice." The real problem is to enlist all educated men "in a common impulse to raise political standards." It remarks truly: "We need men trained to efficient public service, but far more do we need a trained, devoted citizenship. Not all educated men can become leading figures."

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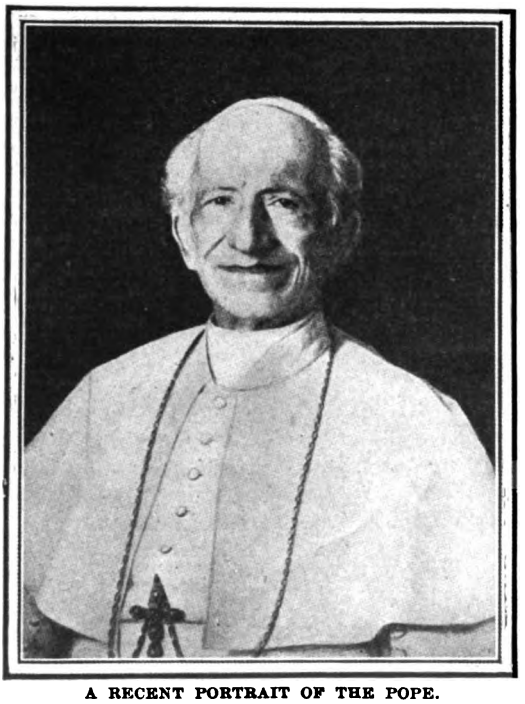
The Personality of Pope Leo XIII: An Appreciation.

BY

J. E. COPUS, S. J.,
Professor of English in St. Ignatius College.

ON July 20 Pope Leo XIII. passed from this earthly life. During the previous three weeks all thoughts had been turned toward a simple, almost bare room, in the Vatican, where lay the shadow of an old man, struggling in the throes of a mortal sickness. The patient whose valiant battle with death has filled the world with admiration and respect could have laid no claim to those physical qualifications which elicit the admiration of men. Late portraits of his Holiness show that his personal appearance, at least in the latter years of his life, was far from prepossessing, redeemed only by the intellectuality which shone through the windows of the soul. Notwithstanding his serious sickness, and the sure, although slow approach of the great conqueror, the eyes of Pope Leo XIII. were as bright and searching yesterday as they were fifty years ago when he was within six years of passing his half-century milestone. This wonderful feature in the Pope's appearance was an indication of a soul within, whose greatness has made the occupant of the Pontifical throne simply the wonder of the age.



A RECENT PORTRAIT OF THE POPE.

While it is impossible to forget that this native of Carpenito had all the peculiar, and, in the consideration of some, the simple characteristics of his race—among which may be enumerated the artless vanity of a child, a docility almost of nubility, joined to a certain amiable stubbornness of character, and a naïveté which in many is altogether wanting—yet beyond and behind all these mere trifling charactertistics there existed in Leo all the mental qualifications that make for real greatness.

If a student of character were to point out the four characteristics of the dead Pontiff, he would probably mention his firmness, his gentleness, his frugality of life, and his broad sympathies—qualities which have caused him to be in touch with every movement for the uplifting of the human race.

Why was Leo XIII. great? It was because he had that power of mind to conceive and grasp and comprehend great schemes for the amelioration of mankind; and above all this because he had what so many others lack and therein fail in true greatness, namely, the power to carry his great plans into effect in so far as the scope of his exalted position as

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head and ruler of the greatest body of Christians permitted.

There must have been a wonderful magnetism, potent or active, in this man, which caused the cardinal princes of the church to forget the dignity of their exalted positions—each, for the nonce to forget a possible higher dignity still—and kneel at the bedside of Leo, there to be dissolved in passionate and altogether loving tears! The Cardinalatial College, whose members comprise the most august individualities known to the world, and all whom he has created, with a few exceptions, regarded him not only as their ecclesiastical head, but also as a father and personal friend. The charm of his personality permeated the church at large and the Vatican, and was most felt by those in more immediate contact with him in the government of the great ecclesiastical organization.

As Cardinal Newman said of St. Paul, so it can be said of the dead Leo—he possessed the virtue of humanity. For an active lifetime of nearly a century he has been moulding human hearts, soothing their pain and sorrow, and ever pointing his finger upward to the higher planes of the better life. Mere humanitarianism, even in its very best phases, could not alone have accomplished the work that the late Pontiff has done. His broad sympathies and profound knowledge of the human heart, as well as of the age in which he lived, would not have been sufficient to make his life so luminous a page in history.

Although his sympathies were as world-wide as his jurisdiction, and although he has accomplished more than any other Pope since the Reformation to clear away the mists and fogs of misunderstanding, there is one quality in this last occupant of the papal throne which overtops them all. It is Leo's unfeigned and eminent piety.

Whatsoever things are true, whatsoever things are pure, whatsoever things are lovely, whatsoever things are of good report have found their exemplification in an eminent degree in the life of the late Pontiff. His was a strong, beautiful, yet simple piety, with no illusions about it. The aroma of Leo's virtues fills the world to-day, and none has been quicker to realize this than the separated brethren, whom he strove with a life-long effort

POPE LEO XIII IN THE VATICAN GARDENS.

to bring back into the fold of Catholic unity.

We refer here not to his office as teacher of faith and morals, but rather to the private life of the man. The celebration of daily Mass, the recitation of the Divine Office, the daily meditation, the pious saying of the Rosary, all done with the simplicity and modesty of a recluse, show the private side of a great character, and give us an insight into the cause of the wonderful success which has accompanied nearly everything he undertook. The Pope knew the value of prayer, and to the infallible utterances of the Pontifex Maximus speaking *ex cathedra* or in his consistories and in his allocutions there was added the force of a pious, holy life.

It is quite within the bounds of probability to say that the esteem and veneration in which Leo XIII. is held by the non-Catholic world to-day is owing as much, if not more, to the holiness of his private life as an individual, than to the brilliant intellect of the student of human nature, or to the acute diplomat and manager of men and events. Mankind, everywhere, holds in respectful, although it may be unspoken esteem, the one whose private

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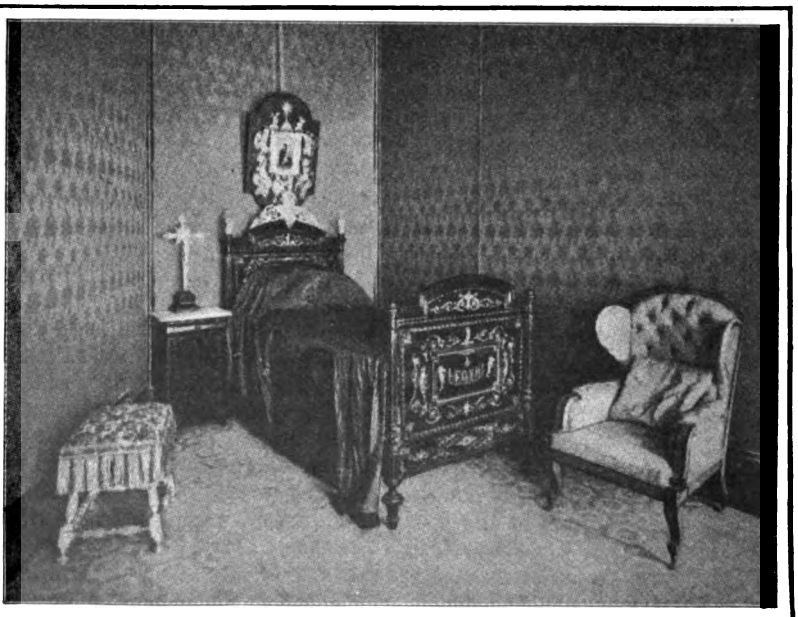
life in high position will bear the searchlight of investigation.

The result of this simple piety which the Peccis seemed to have learned from their own mountain peasantry and retained amid their baronial splendors—the result of what may be called the goodness of the man, prescinding from the virtues required for his exalted dignity as head of the Christian world, was a firm gentleness, or a gentle firmness, both in ruling the Lord Cardinals and other high dignitaries of the church, and in the management of his domestic household, one which amid an age of luxury was of Spartan simplicity. Frugality and abstemiousness were the dominant features of the Pope's domestic life. Surrounded by priceless treasures of art, within stepping distance of the splendor of the Vatican halls and salons, within the shadow of the grand mother-church of the world, the private apartments where this great Pontiff has worked and thought and wrought such changes in the world by the sheer force of his own personality are almost as simple and plain as are those of the peasantry of the Sabine hills. He was a survivor, in an age of almost unprecedented luxury, of the sturdiness and frugality and simple tastes of a Numa Pompilius or a Cincinnatus. The sterling virtues which made the old Romans the masters of the world have survived in Leo, and with the result that he, too, has brought the world to his feet; not indeed with the spear and sword of the olden time, but with the equally effective weapons of the pen and a thoroughly trained mind.

Force no longer rules the world. Ideas are now the real motive power of action, and in wielding these, the great prisoner of the Vatican was *facile princeps.*

His broad and generous sympathies with human aspirations of every kind that have an upward tendency; his thorough knowledge of the age in which he has lived in intimate and astounding knowledge of the social, political and ecclesiastical life of each nation; his being in touch with literally all the world, together with his advanced thought, considered by some almost iconoclastic, and which is nevertheless opposed to a conservatism that amounts to mental stagnation, have all made Leo XIII. the foremost man of the age.

While much must be granted to the fortuitous circumstances of modern progress



BEDROOM OF THE POPE IN THE VATICAN, ROME.

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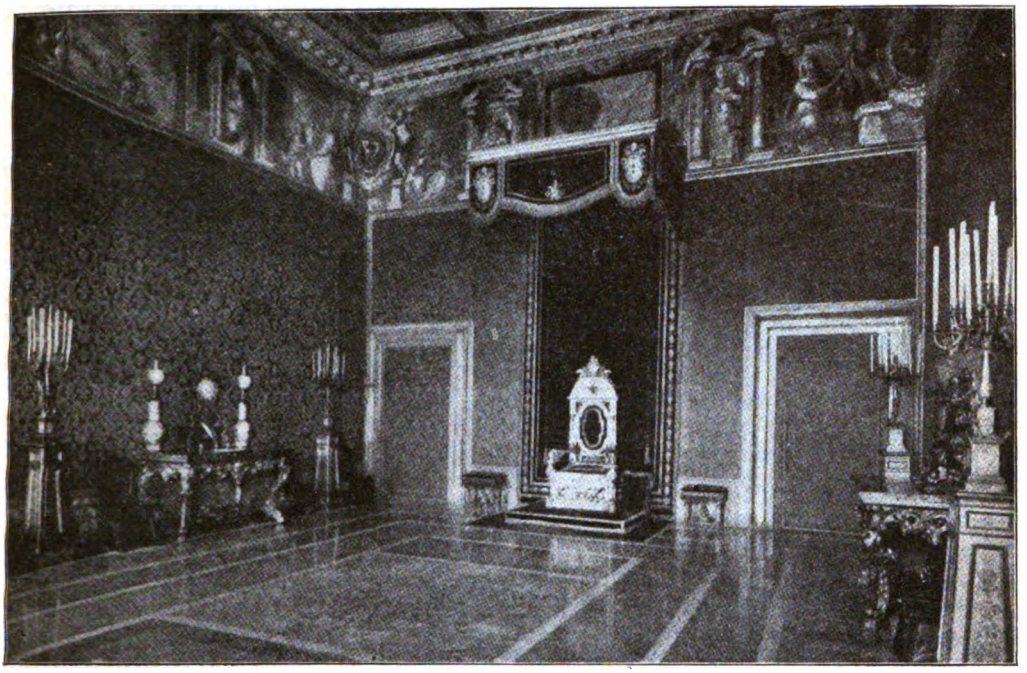

THRONE ROOM OF THE POPE IN THE VATICAN.

—to free thought and expression, to the telegraph, and a free press which have given the present Pope opportunities possessed by none of his predecessors in such plentitude, still his mind was great enough to embrace all the opportunities which progress offered, and use them for the benefit of mankind and the good of the church. True greatness consists in the using of the opportunities and means at hand in the best way, and the whole world admits that the Pontiff Leo XIII. has accomplished this in an eminent manner.

While his knowledge of men and events was prodigious, it was a peculiar mark of his tactful genius that the representatives, lay or clerical, of each nation would leave the audience chamber firmly convinced that *his* nation and the condition of the church in *his* country was the object of the most special solicitude of his Holiness.

With regard to the attitude of Leo XIII. towards the United States, no one who watches current events and the signs of the times can have the least doubt. His accessibility to duly accredited Americans has long been proverbial. His interest, both personal and as the official head of nearly twenty millions of American Catholics—the largest *national* body of Catholics in the church—was pronounced and unfeigned. No one could doubt his sincere and genuine admirations for President Roosevelt. It is generally known that with the exception of the ecclesiastical seminary which he established at his birthplace, there has been no pet scheme in which he has taken more special and personal interest than the Catholic University at Washington, D. C. None received a more cordial welcome at the Vatican than the American bishops when they made their visit *ad limina*. It is safe to say that all liberal-minded Americans today regarded the revered successor of St. Peter as a firm friend of our nation. The splendid tactfulness on the part of the Pope in respect to the Taft Philippine Commission is recent history, and fresh in the minds of all. It is one more link which binds the American people to the great Leo. Americans have ample reason to love this grand old man, and they do.

The world has witnessed, for the first time in history, the remarkable phenomenon of all denominations of non-Catholic Christians praising the Vicar of Christ, praying for his recovery, and watching

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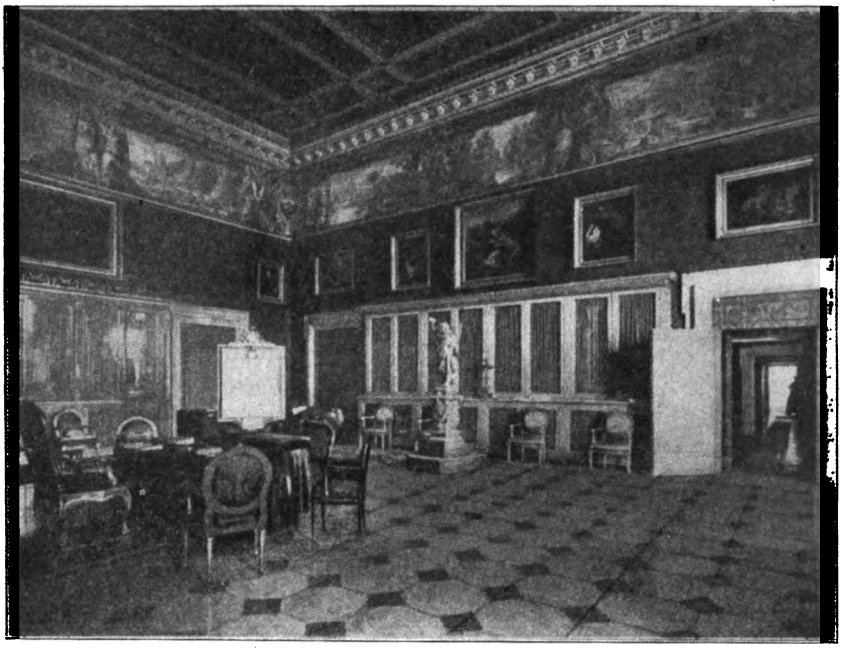

THE LIBRARY OF THE POPE'S PRIVATE APARTMENTS IN THE VATICAN.

with keenest interest the fluctuations in his wonderful struggle with death.

While this article is intended more as a personal appreciation of his remarkable personality than a resumé of his life and work, it would be incomplete without reference to the chief means by which a brilliant intellect in a feeble body has done so much for the uplifting of mankind. Were no monuments of Parian marble to be erected to his memory, were the record of his marvelously successful government of the church for over a quarter of a century to be erased from the page of history, and by an impossibility, his magnetic personality lost sight of and obliterated from the minds of men, one monument would remain of this great pontiff more durable than brass. His encyclicals to the whole church will ever remain as a proof of his extraordinary wisdom, and his knowledge of men and of the economic conditions of the time in which he has lived.

Neither time nor space at disposal admit of an extended notice of these wonderful essays or encyclical letters. From among the many may be mentioned: "On the Evils Affecting Modern Society, their Causes and Remedies," issued April 21, 1878; "The Christian Constitution of States," November 1, 1885; "On the Chief Duties of Christians as Citizens," January 10, 1890; "Human Liberty," June 20, 1888; "Christian Marriage," February 10, 1880; "Concerning Modern Errors, Socialism, Communism, Nihilism," December 28, 1878; and "Workingmen's Clubs and Associations," being an address to the officials and members of the Societies for the furtherance of Catholic Interests among the Industrial Interests of France, February 24, 1885. Considering the seething unrest of the industrial classes in this country at the present time, Leo XIII. has issued no more vital document, none more far-reaching in its effects, nor comprehensive in the principles which it lays down than the encyclical called: "The Condition of the Working Classes," given to the world on May 15, 1891. The effort is a masterly one, and it is safe to predict that the problem of our labor troubles will not find a solution until the

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principles here enunciated are accepted and acted upon.

His Holiness admits that the discussion is not an easy one, nor void of danger. He shows that it is no easy matter to define the relative rights and mutual duties of the rich and poor, of capital and labor. After warning the laboring classes of the dangers arising from the demagogue, he refutes the proposed Socialistic solution, pointing out the injustice of the proposed remedy. He shows that the Socialist remedy would rob the lawful possessor, bring state action into a sphere not within its competence, and create utter confusion in the community. In a lucid explanation, he shows that private property is a natural right which is derived from the family, which is the "society" of a man's house—a society, limited indeed in numbers, but no less a true "society," anterior to every kind of state or nation, invested with rights and duties of its own, totally independent of the civil community. The encyclical proceeds to show that there is no practical solution without religion. His Holiness admits that labor and suffering must exist, but insists that class should help class, that the rich must help the poor, and that the poor must accept their lot. It is then shown that the church serves Society by upholding Christianity, and that she has a maternal solicitude concerning the temporal interests of her children. The state whose duty is to promote the general good should be solicitous for the working population. The encyclical points out in what respects the state should interfere, and how it should deal with the labor questions. This justly-famed circular letter insists that the working people must have their spiritual rights respected, and that the workingman has an absolute right to a living wage. He should be encouraged to acquire property, and His Holiness strenuously advocates the adoption of associations and organizations, pointing out the evils that may be found in some of these, and encourages the formation of Catholic associations for workingmen. The Pope finishes the masterly effort by showing how all this is to be founded on Christian charity, which is an emanation of the Divine Charity of Christ.

Leo XIII. was a great man. Hildebrand ruled the church by force of a strong arm; Leo governed the whole world by the strength of his supreme intellect. Napoleon conquered countries for personal ambition; Leo has subdued whole nations by his personal disinterestedness. Bismarck, the iron ruler, won victories by crushing the hearts of men; Leo has gained the hearts of nearly two hundred millions by his love and affection. With an intellect as deep and as profound as that of Gladstone, the Pontiff surpassed him in a sympathetic knowledge of men and in the subtle power of guiding events. Considerate as was our Lincoln for the universal rights of man, Leo, from his elevated position on the Vatican hill, went further and fought with unfailing courage for the emancipation and uplifting of the spiritual as well as the material man.

POPE'S ELECTION.—The Papal office is the highest in the gift of the Church of Rome. In the early ages of the Church, the Pope was chosen by the whole body of the faithful. As the membership grew, his election devolved upon the clergy, and later upon the cardinals. Since the year 1059 the right of election has been vested in the Sacred College, as the body of cardinals is called. Their number is limited to seventy, and sometimes there are not quite that number. In 1902 the number was sixty-six, of whom the majority were Italians.

On the morning of the twelfth day after the Pope's death all the cardinals are present at low mass in the Sistine or the Pauline chapel. Then a vote is taken. Three cardinals, one from each order, act as tellers. One by one the cardinals drop their ballots in the vase on the altar, after kneeling and praying for guidance. The cardinal writes his name on the ballot and these words: "I choose for supreme pontiff the Most Rev. ———" and seals this part of the ballot. The tellers count the ballots. The cardinals meet and vote day after day until a Pope is elected. He is not necessarily one of their own number. It is expected, however, that a cardinal will be their choice. The one chosen takes a new name, is led to the high altar and saluted by the cardinals. The ring of the fisherman is placed on his finger, and afterward his name is engraved on the ring. The senior cardinal-deacon then announces the election to the people outside.

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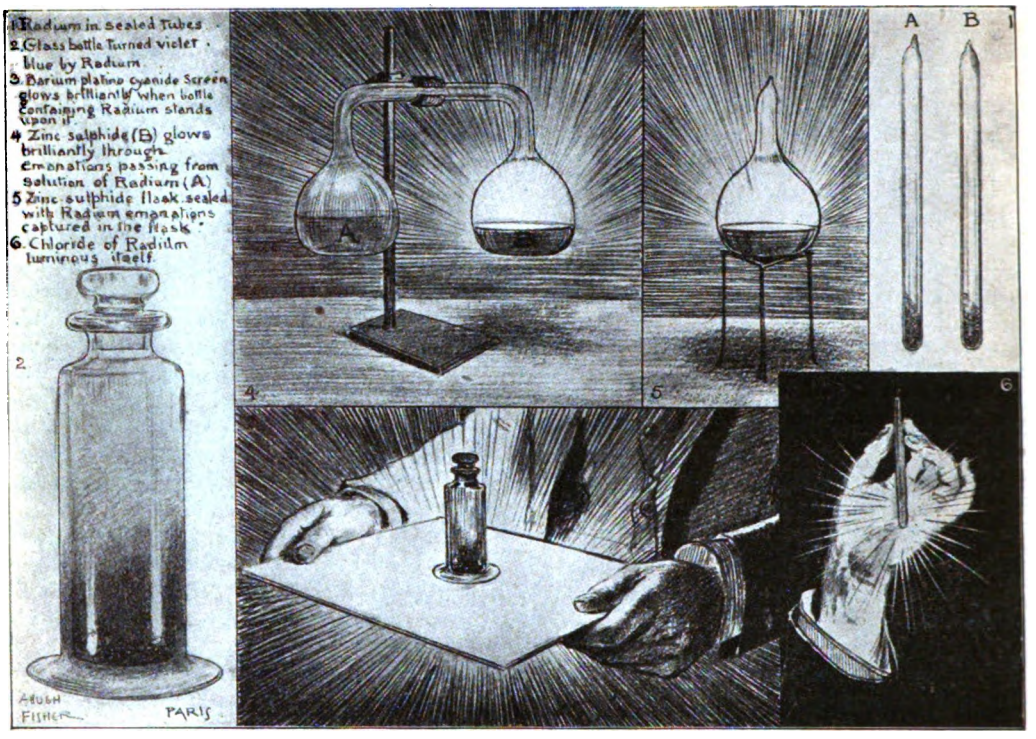

RADIUM. EXPERIMENTS MADE IN PARIS BY THE DISCOVERERS, MONSIEUR AND MADAME CURIE.

RADIUM AND OTHER RADIOACTIVE SUBSTANCES.—Nothing is causing more excitement in the scientific world than radium, polonium, actinium, and thorium, those remarkable substances recently discovered, which give off light the moment they are created, without the stimulation of any form of heat, light, electrical or other vibrations, so far as scientists are aware. Of these radioactive substances, the most interesting is radium, which, with polonium, was discovered by Monsieur Pierre Curie and his wife, Madame Sklodowski Curie, of Paris.

Mr. William J. Hammer, a New York electrical engineer of high standing, whose researches and achievements have won for him the esteem and friendship of many of the most eminent scientists, is authority for much of the following information. According to him, the so-called science of radioactivity owes its foundation to the discovery in 1896, by M. Henri Becquerel, member of the Institute of France, of the wonderful radiations emanating from uranium. M. Becquerel was experimenting with various phosphorescent substances. He exposed some salts of uranium to sunlight to make them phosphoresce, and then tried to take their effect on a photograph plate. During a period of inclement weather, he put the plate away in a drawer; after several days he took the plate out, and, acting on impulse, developed it. To his great surprise, he secured a better image than he had made before by exposure to sunlight. This led to his discovering and investigating the properties of what have ever since been called "Becquerel rays."

In 1898, while investigating Becquerel radiations from uranium, Prof. and Mme. Curie, of Paris, found some samples of pitchblende, from which the uranium is extracted, which had four times the radioactivity of metallic uranium.

Concluding naturally that the Becquerel radiations were due to some unknown substance in the pitchblende more potent than uranium itself, they undertook a diligent search for it. Then they discovered a substance associated with bismuth, and resembling the latter strongly in chemical characteristics. To this new substance Mme. Curie gave the name polonium, after her native Poland.

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In the same year, M. and Mme. Curie and M. Bemont succeeded in isolating a second substance found in pitchblende, which was associated with and had many of the chemical and physical characteristics of barium. To this new substance they gave the name "radium."

In 1899, pitchblende was made to yield up a third substance, to which M. Debierne gave the name "actinium." It was associated with thorium, whose chemical and other characteristics it possessed. It is precipitated by ammonium sulph-hydrate. Sir William Crookes states that actinium is identical with uranium, the substance which he had isolated from uranium and called uranium X.

Of all these new substances, as above intimated, radium is by far the most important. Some scientists think that radium, on account of its extraordinary and puzzling characteristics, bids fair to unsettle the present established theories as to the origin of matter. Lord Kelvin has declared that the discovery of the Becquerel radiations has in itself made the principle of the conservation of energy questionable. The discovery of radium threatens to upset the vibratory theory of light and to revive the Newtonian corpuscular theory of light.

Yet it must be borne in mind that, important as radium is scientifically, its commercial importance is thus far almost nil. Professor Curie himself has stated that all the work done in France and Germany in the last three years has resulted in securing only about one pound of radium, this including all grades and qualities. Professor J. J. Thomson states that there is more gold in sea-water than there is radium, polonium, and actinium in pitchblende.

M. Curie's radium is prepared under his direction at the laboratory of the Société Centrale des Produits Chimiques. It is obtained from Austrian pitchblende, and prepared in different degrees of activity. It is sealed in small glass tubes (see Fig. 1) and is then ready for sale. Radium of the lowest activity, A (240 units), costs only $2.30 a gram (just over 15 grains) but its effects are inappreciable. Radium of the highest activity, B (300,000 units), costs $2,316 a gram. As Sir William Crookes has demonstrated, radium is not in itself luminous, but gives off emanations which cause certain substances to phosphoresce brilliantly. Such is the screen of barium-platino-cyanide in Fig. 3, which glows brilliantly when placed in a dark room with a bottle containing radium standing upon it.

At the Bohemian uranium mines, precious radioactive substances had been accumulating for years in the waste-heaps, until M. and Mme. Curie discovered that in the pitchblende (uraninite) discarded after the extraction therefrom of the uranium oxides, there remained a force far more potent that that stored up in the uranite itself. Uranium, although widely distributed, is never found in large amounts. It forms several minerals, of which the commonest is pitchblende (uraninite). This is a compound oxide containing 81½ per cent. of uranium, 4 per cent. of lead, and ½ per cent. of iron, with oxygen and water, or sometimes magnesia, manganese, or silica. The Bohemian pitchblende contains the largest percentage of radioactive material so far discovered. It occurs also in Saxony in small pockets, and a distinct vein of it has been discovered in Cornwall. M. Curie has, moreover, secured some excellent radioactive pitchblende from Colorado. Practically all the radium that has reached the United States thus far is German radium, none of which, according to M. Curie, exceeds a radioactivity of 300.

Not only is radium scarce, but also its expensiveness is augmented by the extreme difficulty of producing it. To produce one kilo (2.2 pounds) of radium it takes 5,000 tons of uranium residues, and the cost of handling these residues is $2,000 a ton. Chemically pure radium cannot be obtained by chemical analysis; therefore the far more sensitive electrical method is employed. The Curies say that thereby they can detect the presence of a quantity so minute that it would require five thousand times as much to show at all in the spectroscope.

The most remarkable properties of radium are its powers of creating heat and light. Professors Curie and Laborde aroused great interest a few months ago by their statement that radium maintains its own temperature at 1.5 degrees centigrade above its surroundings. Thus half a pound of radium salt would evolve enough heat in

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one hour to equal that caused by the burning of 1-3 cubic foot of hydrogen gas. The heat evolved from pure radium salt is sufficient to melt more than its own weight of ice every hour. This evolution of heat goes on constantly for indefinite periods, but leaves the radium, after months of activity, as potent as it was at the beginning. Therefore, the world is confronted with the problem of finding out how radium can constantly throw off heat without combustion and without chemical change, as M. Curie says it does.

Messrs. Walkoff and Giesel first demonstrated that radium rays, like Roentgen or X rays, produce serious physiological effects. Mr. Giesel kept on his hands for two hours a celluloid capsule containing radiferous barium bromide. The rays, acting through the celluloid, caused a slight redness of the skin of his hand. About a fortnight later inflammation set in, and finally the skin sloughed off. The Curies have also been burnt by radium. M. Becquerel received a very painful burn by carrying in his waistcoat pocket a few decigrams of very active radiferous barium chloride inclosed in a small glass tube, the tube wrapped in paper and the whole kept in a little pasteboard box. Many other instances are recorded of the serious character of radium burns. Professor Curie has declared that if a man should enter a room where a kilo of radium stood, it would destroy his eyesight, burn all the skin off his body, and probably kill him. Mr. Hammer has deprived an electric torpedo fish (*torpedo galvani*) of its power to shock, by laying on it some tubes of radium. Radium is also a powerful destroyer of microbic life.

Radium light is even more wonderful than radium heat. Preparations of radium have been made in a dark room and have been kept there for a period of two years without their losing one whit of their luminosity. Radium might almost be regarded as matter tearing itself to pieces and projecting these pieces with from half to the full speed of light. The particles are carried through all matter. Yet the loss of weight is infinitessimal. Radium makes radioactive the walls of the room where it is kept, and the clothes of anybody in the same room at time. Sometimes M. Curie has to delay his tests for several hours because, by previous exposure to radium, his clothes have become so radioactive as to prevent his approaching his instruments. When a little cotton is wrapped around a small tube containing radium, the whole mass becomes brilliantly phosphorescent—not merely because the light passes through the cotton, but because the cotton itself becomes radioactive. It has been shown by Elster and Geitel that if a wire is placed in the atmosphere and charged negatively from a source of current with about 500 volts of electricity, the wire becomes radioactive. This radioactivity can be scraped off, and will affect photograph plates, ionize the air, etc.

Radium rays are composite and have been classified by Professor Rutherford of Montreal, under three heads: First, Alpha rays, which are only feebly penetrating and are easily absorbed by thin layers of matter; secondly, Beta rays, which are negatively charged with electric particles, or electrons moving with high velocity, and are in all respects like ordinary Crookes says; thirdly, Gamma rays, which are not deflected by magnetic action, and yet are of a highly penetrating character, like the Roentgen or X rays. Professor George F. Barker of Philadelphia, says that the rays from polonium appear to consist entirely of Alpha rays, those from uranium to consist entirely of Beta rays, and those from radium and thorium to consist of all three. None of the rays from radium can be reflected, refracted, or polarized, which fact shows that they are not mere light waves.

Radium rays produce many interesting chemical effects. Glass, porcelain, paper and other substances are changed in color by the action of radium.

Radium light has been used with powerful effect in photography by several scientists. By laying the object on the plate, placing the same wrapped in thick rugs before a radium tube in the bottom of a trunk, and keeping the whole in a dark room for twenty-four hours, a better photograph can be obtained than with sunlight.

By holding a radium tube against the closed eye, or the temple, a sensation of light is produced. This is believed to be owing to the phosphorescence of the pupil of the eye or to a possible effect on the nerve centers.

J. C. Hobart.

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A Great Revival.

BY

DAVID WILLIAMSON.

HAD anyone predicted that the triumphs of evangelist Moody and singer Sankey in great Britain thirty years ago could be duplicated by living men, he would have been charged with guessing. Yet the thing has been done, and by Americans again; this time Rev. R. A. Torrey, D. D., as prophet and Mr. Charles Alexander as psalmist. Yet there is a difference, of course, for history never repeats her pieces precisely. The D. D. shows that Mr. Torrey is credited with distinction for learning, and this time the credit is well founded; and the tour was extended beyond Great Britain to her antipodal colonies.

The personality of men who can move millions is always worth study. Reuben Archer Torrey is now forty-seven years old; he had a first-rate education, spending part of his time in Germany attending the lectures of eminent theologians. This has made him conversant with the later developments of "higher criticism," against which he has waged relentless war. Returning to America Mr. Torrey was called to be pastor of a church in Minneapolis, then became, at Mr. Moody's request, superintendent of the Bible Institute, Chicago, and later the pastor of Chicago Avenue Church. Charles Alexander is a Tennesseean by birth, and from boyhood was very fond of music. He went to the Bible Institute and there learned the management of choirs and the general work of a singer. He accompanied Milan B. Williams, the evangelist, in meetings held all over the country, singing solos with remarkable impressiveness. About two years ago he received a telephone message from Mr. Torrey, six hundred miles away, asking him if he would come with him on an evangelistic campaign in various parts of the world, beginning in Australia. Mr. Alexander assented, and the conjunction of the two men has been as happy and useful as was that of D. L. Moody with Ira D. Sankey.

In the pages of "A Great Revival," one may read of the journeys and incidents which have occupied Dr. Torrey and Mr. Alexander from the commencement of this tour. They had astonishing success in Australia and New Zealand, countries where hitherto the ordinary evangelistic effort has not produced much interest. In Melbourne in the great Exhibition Building, where the Commonwealth was inaugurated, the preacher and the conductor of the singing had huge audiences. Several thousands of their hearers professed conversion, and the impression left on the commercial life of Melbourne and the homes of the people, as well as in the churches, has remained to this day. In

CHARLES M. ALEXANDER.

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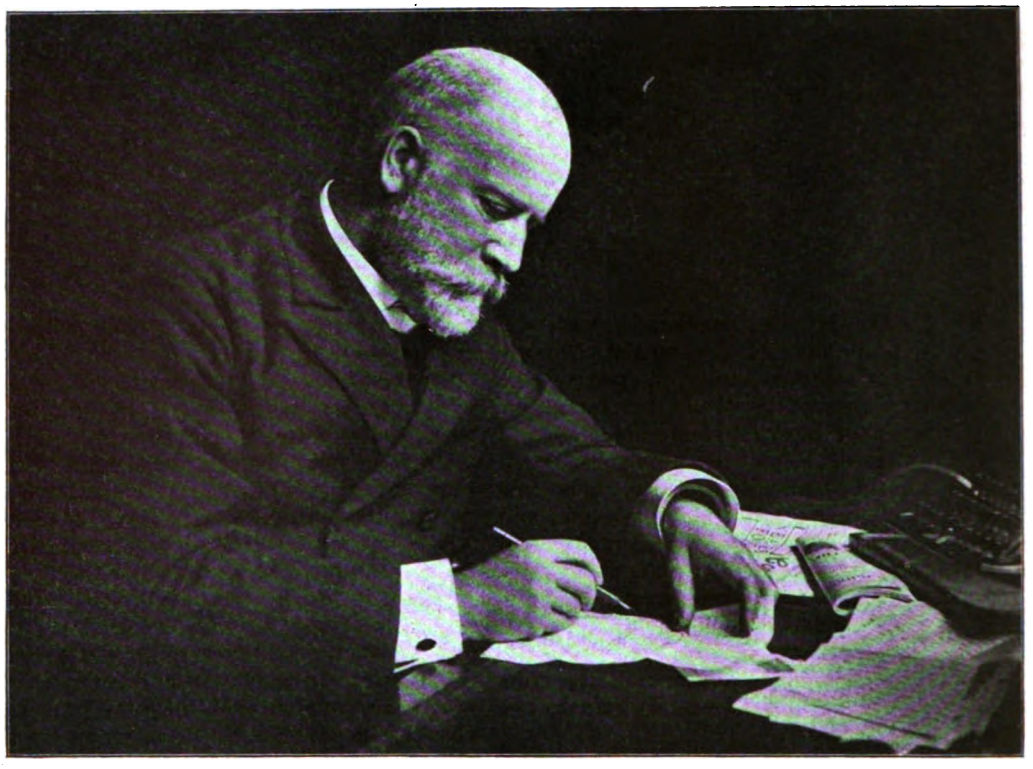

REV. R. A. TORREY, D. D., IN HIS STUDY.

Sydney and other cities the evangelists were received with equal warmth, and their work was accompanied by much good, as is proved by several thrilling incidents. The evangelists were not content with simply addressing audiences in halls and churches, but visited great factories and railway yards, and spoke and sang on their journeys by rail. The magnetic power of Charles Alexander over his audiences has resulted in people singing with an enthusiasm which was unprecedented. His solos, too, never failed to melt men's hearts.

The evangelists began their work in Great Britain in January last. After a few preliminary meetings in a suburb of London, their real campaign began in Edinburgh, where Moody and Sankey achieved so much good. The Scotch temperament is not emotional, but it soon thawed under the influence of Dr. Torrey. The Scots are not much given to singing hymns, but they could not resist Mr. Alexander, and soon the city was vocal with the new melodies he had taught the congregations. The largest halls and churches in Edinburgh were insufficient for the crowds which wanted to attend the month's meetings. In the audience one saw the eminent college professor side by side with the city clerk, the cultured minister listening intently to Dr. Torrey's able defence of the Bible, and every variety of man and woman who could gain admittance. The Moderators of the Church of Scotland and the United Free Church joined hands for the occasion; and ministers of various denominations forgot their differences in the joy of seeing men and women leaving their sins. Even greater success awaited the evangelists in Glasgow, where for a month St. Andrew's Hall, holding five thousand people, was too small for the audiences. Aberdeen was next visited, and in Belfast such was the intense interest that at last St. George's Market had to be seated for meetings. On the last Sunday of the evangelists' visit there were at least twenty-three thousand people present.

(More about this remarkable work can be learned from "A Great Revival" by David Williamson, published by Fleming H. Revell Company, Chicago.)

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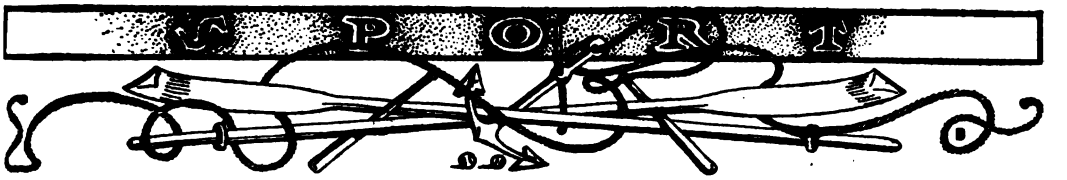

Review of the Month.

BY

GUSTAVE W. AXELSON,
Sporting Editor "The Chicago Record-Herald."

THE TURF.—When The Picket swept under the wire, winner in the great American Derby, June 20, thoroughbred racing in the West reached its climax. Although The Picket has still to show his worth as a great racehorse, he must, however, be credited with making the best time in the event—2:33. Behind The Picket were some of the great racers of the year. There were Claude, Bernays, and, not the least, Savable, the $25,000 son of the mighty Salvator.

The Picket, owned by Middleton and Jungbluth of Louisville, Kentuckians who love racing for the sport and not for the money, won the Derby with its $27,000 purse, but interest centered in Savable. Salvator's son was favorite, he was owned by a Chicagoan, John A. Drake, and the public backed him to win the event. He carried more money than has any other candidate for the American Derby. Whatever may be said of the evils of betting, the fact remains that the American people like to take a chance, and they certainly did so on Savable. His owner stood to win a fortune. The bookmakers would have paid out sums well up in the millions had he won. But he lost and thereby the tradition of the Derby was kept intact, for few favorites ever won the blue ribbon racing event of the West.

The East was not represented, but this circumstance did not detract from the success of the event. Irish Lad, owned jointly by Harry Payne Whitney and Herman Duryea, was equal favorite for the event until the very last week before the Derby. Then came the decision not to ship West, and the race was left to Western horses. This fact did not apparently worry the race-goers, for a mighty army of some 75,000 turned out. It was by all odds the greatest assemblage in the history of the American turf and put into the shade attendance figures for any sporting event this side of the Atlantic.

The Picket won the race in true thoroughbred fashion. He won so easily that the event was robbed of a real contest. He led from flag fall till the finish line was reached six lengths in front of the nearest colt, Claude. Behind Claude, winner of three Derbies up to that time, struggled a field of seventeen horses, the largest that ever went to the post in the Derby. Accidents and minor incidents ruined the chances of some and Bernays, also from Kentucky, met with the most interference. Savable, who was fighting it out with Bernays for third place, and who finished fourth, ran a great race, and he had Lester Reiff in the saddle, the jockey who once bestrode the best horses in England. For once he failed, and opinions of critics after the race laid the defeat of the favorite more to the jockey than to the colt.

As a fashionable event, it followed the precedents set in former years. The day was perfect and astounding creations of the milliner's art were seen around the clubhouse and in the boxes. It was Derby day with a vengeance and the one day where the tout and the millionaire rub elbows on common ground. The betting ring—for there was betting—was one seething mass of humanity. It was such a pushing, tearing, frantic mob as had never been seen before. In that Derby

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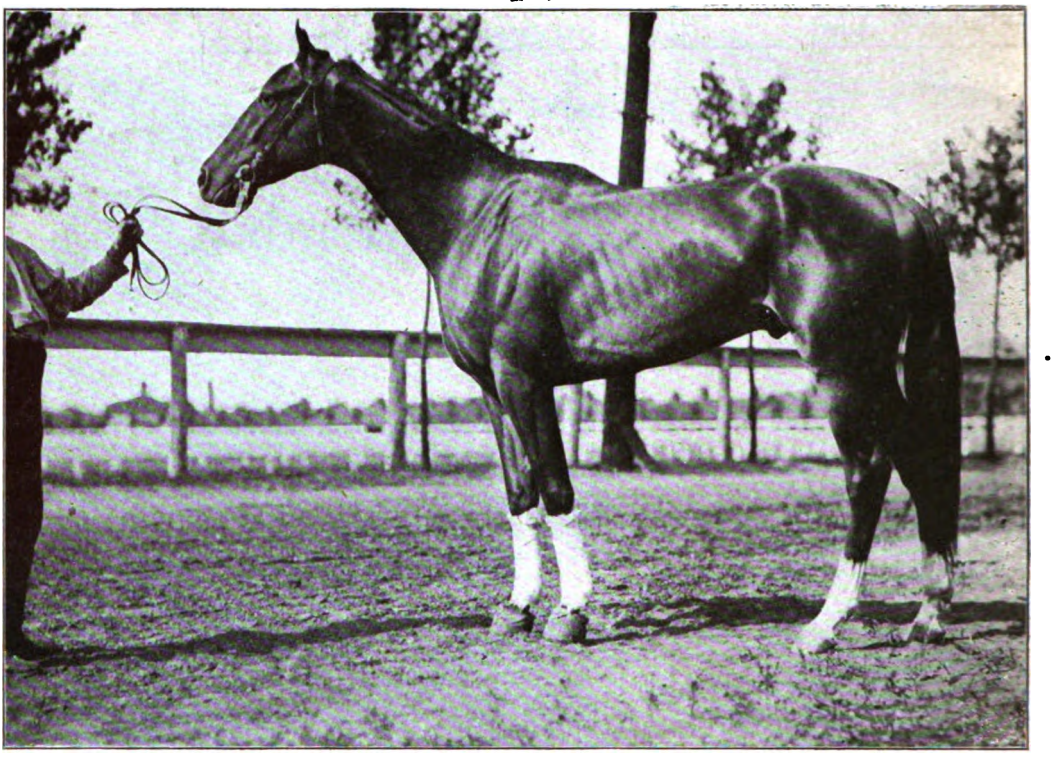

THE PICKET, WINNER OF THE AMERICAN DERBY.

day were wrapped up heartaches, glory, and fortunes won and lost, while on the surface it presented the most wonderful kaleidoscopic scene of the year.

While the Derby held the attention of practically the entire West and a good portion of the East, other events almost as interesting were overshadowed. It was certainly a month for the thoroughbred. While hardly the echo of Derby day had died away another colt that stepped into the limelight was Dick Welles, owned by J. B. Respess of Cincinnati. Dick Welles, although a different type of horse, might crowd McChesney for fame. The son of King Eric—Teas Over—broke the world's record for six furlongs at Washington Park, June 30; but it was the way he did it that will probably make him most famous. Dick Welles was almost left at the post, being turned sideways when the barrier was released. The game colt set sail for the leaders, overhauled them one by one and won by a head from Runnells in the time of 1:11 4-5, this being one-fifth of a second under the world's record of 1:12, held jointly by Bummer and Lux Casta. Such an ovation as Dick Welles received from 15,000 in the stand has seldom been accorded a thoroughbred.

Hardly had the glare of Dick Welles' wonderful performance at six furlongs faded before Alan-a-Dale smashed the world's record for a mile, and Rag Tag for seven and a half furlongs. Alan-a-Dale's feat will go down into history alongside performances of Salvator, Kingston, Hanover, and others. The new record for the world to gaze at is 1:37 3-5, which lowered the old by one-fifth of a second held by Brigadier.

Then on July 2 came Glassful and set a new record at Washington Park for one mile and one-sixteenth, covering the distance in 1:44 3-5, just one-fifth of a second below the old mark held by Hyphen.

HARNESS HORSES.—At Cleveland, July 11, Lou Dillon set a new trotting record to wagon by covering a mile in 2:03½. She was driven by her owner, Mr. C. K. G. Billings, of Chicago. While other millionaires spend thousands of dollars to see hired jockeys win or lose on costly thoroughbreds on the running turf, Mr. Bill-

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ings has been equally liberal in the harness-horse world. Mr. Billings, however, prefers handling the reins himself to intrusting the precious pieces of horseflesh to strange hands, and at present he is the peer among amateur reinsmen.

BOAT RACES.—The annual boat races at New London and Poughkeepsie had less of the glamour that surrounded them in former years, but nevertheless they were fully up to the standard of American oarsmanship.

Yale and Harvard met as usual on the Sound off New London, and as has happened sixteen times before, Yale won by three lengths in the time of 20:19 4-5. This was not all. Yale swept the boards clean and took the four-oared and Freshmen races as well. Harvard showed magnificent form, but the sons of Eli were just a bit stronger and the blue waved triumphant, closing a season most phenomenal in Yale's athletic history.

At Poughkeepsie the expected happened. It was Cornell against the field and the Ithacans won by nine lengths in the phenomenal time of 18:57. Georgetown, a practical newcomer on the waters of the Hudson, was second, and Wisconsin, the Western representative, third. Behind them came in order, Pennsylvania, Syracuse, and Columbia.

As Yale did at New London, so did Cornell. Cornell had full license to roar out that mighty yell, "Cornell! Cornell! I Yell" for she took all the races, four-oared as well as the Freshmen.

Immediately after the race, came the suggestion for a shorter distance. Four miles is considered too much of a strain and three miles is advocated. This will undoubtedly meet with some opposition, as the four miles in rowing has become sacred to the oarsmen who made the time and distance famous.

BASEBALL.—The University of Illinois took the collegiate baseball championship in the West, and Princeton, perhaps with less clear a title, that of the East. Princeton defeated Yale on the Polo Grounds in New York, but Harvard followed and did the same to the sons of Eli.

In the West there could be no dispute as to the championship. Illinois has a clear title. There has probably not been for a number of years such an aggregation of stars on a college team as was the case with the Illini. The State university has almost become an academy or preparatory baseball college for the professional leagues. A number of the members of the team were snapped up by professional teams including such stars as Cook and Stahl.

Some phenomenal ball-playing has enlivened the professional baseball season. The Chicago National League team and Boston played an odd game at Boston, neither team scoring a run for nine innings, the game finally being called on account of darkness.

In Chicago, the White Stockings and New York played an eighteen-inning game to a tie—6 to 6—the game being called on account of darkness. The National League ran up against some opposition on its eastern trip and fell back in the pennant race. On the home grounds, the American League team entertained the rest of the teams in the league and made more than a fair showing.

NATIONAL LEAGUE.

Club	Won	Lost	Per Ct.
Pittsburg	50	23	.685
New York	46	25	.648
Chicago	45	31	.592
Cincinnati	36	34	.514
Brooklyn	35	35	.500
Boston	28	43	.394
St. Louis	27	48	.360
Philadelphia	22	50	.305

AMERICAN LEAGUE.

Club	Won	Lost	Per Ct.
Boston	46	27	.630
Philadelphia	43	30	.589
Cleveland	38	32	.543
New York	34	32	.515
Detroit	34	34	.500
Chicago	32	36	.471
St. Louis	29	37	.439
Washington	21	49	.300

AMERICAN ASSOCIATION.

Club	Won	Lost	Per Ct.
Milwaukee	42	26	.618
St. Paul	43	29	.597
Indianapolis	42	32	.568
Louisville	39	34	.534
Kansas City	29	33	.468
Columbus	31	42	.425
Minneapolis	30	42	.417
Toledo	26	44	.371

WESTERN LEAGUE.

Club	Won	Lost	Per Ct.
Milwaukee	42	20	.678
Colorado Springs	43	25	.632
Kansas City	36	30	.545
St. Joseph	31	34	.477
Denver	32	36	.471
Peoria	29	36	.446
Des Moines	25	40	.385
Omaha	24	41	.369

THREE EYE LEAGUE.

Club	Won	Lost	Per Ct.
Bloomington	40	26	.606
Decatur	36	27	.571
Rockford	34	31	.523
Davenport	31	29	.517
Cedar Rapids	30	31	.492
Rock Island	28	33	.459
Dubuque	28	36	.438
Springfield	24	38	.387

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CENTRAL LEAGUE.

Club	Won	Lost	Per Ct.
Fort Wayne	44	27	.619
Marion	42	28	.600
Evansville	39	32	.549
South Bend	41	34	.547
Dayton	34	38	.472
Wheeling	34	39	.466
Grand Rapids	29	42	.408
Terre Haute	25	48	.342

ATHLETICS.—That young athletes in the West are taking more than a passing interest in the strenuous existence on the track and field was made evident by the splendid showing of high-school and preparatory school athletes on Marshall Field, June 6. It was Professor Stagg's first real attempt to encourage secondary school athletics under the auspices of the University of Chicago. It proved a success in every way and paved the way for an annual affair.

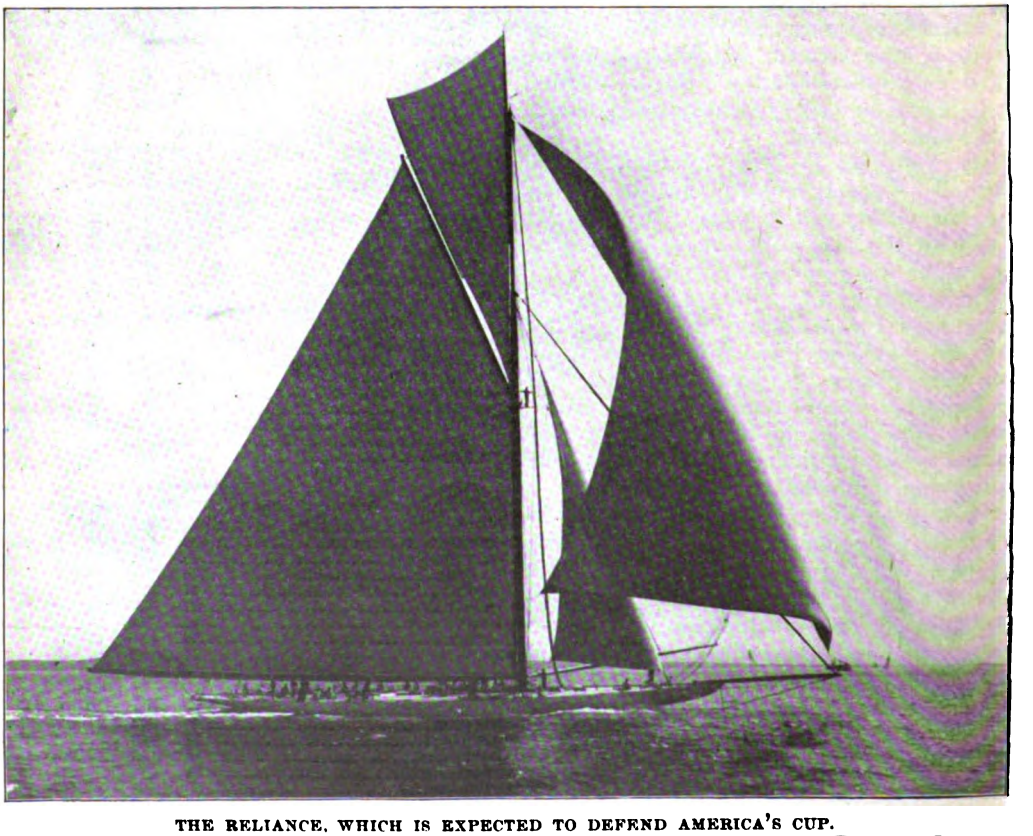
Hogenson, of Lewis Institute, proved to be the star of the meeting. The Lewis crack twice defeated the hitherto invincible Eckersall of Hyde Park High School. By defeating Eckersall in the 100-yard dash, Hogenson equaled the Western interscholastic record of ten seconds for the distance. He also defeated Eckersall in the 220-yard dash, making the distance in 0:22 1-5.

Two Western interscholastic records were broken. Carrithers of Pontiac set a new record in the 12-pound shot, putting it 47 feet, 11½ inches, lowering the old record, 11½ inches, held by himself Steffens of North Division High School, Chicago, lowered the record in the 120-yard hurdles from 0:16 2-5 to 0:16 1-5.

Lewis Institute captured the meet by one point from Pontiac High School. The points of the first seven prize winning schools were:

Lewis	22
Pontiac High School	21
Hyde Park High School	18
Milwaukee Academy	11
East Division High School, Milwaukee	11
North Division High School, Chicago	10
Yankton (S. D.) Academy	10

YACHTING.—That America's cup seems reasonably safe in the hands of this country was made apparent during the trial races among the cup boats during the past



THE RELIANCE, WHICH IS EXPECTED TO DEFEND AMERICA'S CUP.

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few weeks. *Reliance,* the hope of the patriots, has shown phenomenal speed in stiff and light wind and has outfooted her rivals, *Constitution* and *Columbia,* with ease.

On July 1, the *Reliance*, in a race with the other two boats, established a new American record for the cup distance, fifteen miles and return, by covering it in three hours, four minutes and 34 seconds. The record was held formerly by the *Vigilant,* which sailed it in 3:24:34.

Sir Thomas Lipton's fleet is now in American waters. The *Shamrock* has been inspected by yachting critics and pronounced a speedy boat. But will she beat *Reliance,* which without doubt will be selected to defend the cup? Very few believe that Sir Thomas' boat is fast enough. A slight accident to the boat marred the first spin down the Long Island Sound, but, as it was nothing serious, it was soon repaired. And now for the cup races, which come about August 19, if the weather is favorable, and may the best boat win.

TAILLESS CATS are strangely numerous in the Bismarck archipelago which is perhaps, next to Tibet, the least known inhabited part of the world, and thereby hangs a tale whose convolutions link together hygiene, witchcraft, and man's inborn impulse to hold on to what he owns. For these cats were not born without tails, like their Manx congeners. Their tails have been rudely chopped off. In seeking the reason for this cruelty, which in civilized countries is never practised upon cats but only upon horses, we must note in the first place that though the guileless savage has not a fastidious palate and has never heard of bacteria, he has learned by experience that under a tropical sun food soon becomes unfit to eat, and even poisonous. Hence arose the superstition that remnants of food falling into the hands of an enemy enable him to cast a spell over the eaters of the meal at which the remnants were left. So the Bismarckians always endeavor strenuously to devour all the food in sight and on rare occasions when this is physically impossible they carefully bury the remnants or throw them into the sea. Europeans who have native servants often find this practice annoying and expensive. Now the natives value their cats less as pets than as a convenient source of fresh meat. It follows that thefts of cats are frequent, or rather, were frequent until some genius evolved the happy scheme of cutting off their tails and storing them away in a safe place. "For," said he, "if a thief should steal my cat and eat it an incantation muttered over its residue will make the miscreant so sick that he will be sorry he ever tasted stolen cat's flesh." It was an idea worthy of the great chancellor himself and the humble brown Bismarckian in pursuing the blood and iron policy which it entailed was, like him, serenely indifferent to bloodshed, pain, and caterwaulings, so long as he secured his ends or his cats' ends. The practice has since become general and it works like a charm as it was intended to do. But it is hard to understand why it is confined to cats. Dogs are eaten also but they are never curtailed.

TANNING can now be done by means of the Roentgen or X-rays. This will be the first application of X-rays to industry, as hitherto these rays have been of value only to the medical profession. The recent invention, however, of two Cincinnati men opens the way for them to become an important factor in commerce. It will tend to cheapen greatly all leather goods, particularly boots and shoes. By the new process the hides will be soaked for about four days in lime to separate the fibres and remove the hair as is now done. Then the hides are soaked for about two hours in a solution of certain chemicals, a part of the invention. After leaving this solution the hides are placed on a highly polished steel plate. There for twenty minutes their entire surface is exposed to the X-rays diffused from three tubes. Then the hides are ready for the finishing into enamel, patent leather, or other desired article, which is done by the process already employed.

The value of the invention lies in the fact that what has always been accomplished in not less than four months by soaking the hides in chemical solutions can be accomplished in twenty minutes by exposure to the X-rays. Also, the saving is three-fourths of the cost of construction by the old system. Patents have been applied for, and manufacturing will begin as soon as they are granted.

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The Torrens System of Land Registration.

BY

H. GERALD CHAPIN, LL. D.,
Editor of "The American Lawyer."

WHEN, in 1858, Sir Robert Torrens, Premier of South Australia, secured the passage by the local Parliament of the act of land registration, which in common parlance goes by his name, he gave initial impetus to a reform apparently destined to spread over the entire civilized globe.

Legal training is not requisite to a perception of the difficulties attendant upon the present transfer of real estate. All that is necessary in the sale or hypothecation of a million dollars' worth of stocks or bonds, is an endorsement and delivery by the vendor, and registration on the books of the corporation. Real estate, however trifling its value, cannot safely be conveyed or mortgaged without a searching of records so elaborate that thirty days is the time usually set before "title is closed."

County Clerks' and Registers' offices are choked with records. In New York County alone (embracing but two of the five city boroughs) there are over 3,000 volumes of deeds, over 3,400 of mortgages (averaging 500 pages) and an almost countless number of judgment records and notices of *lis pendens*. In addition, whenever any owner in the chain of title has died, pending such ownership, the musty records of the Surrogate's Court are called into requisition.

At the present time, there are over eight thousand volumes of 640 pages each, in the office of the Clerk of Cook County, Illinois, and they are accumulating at the rate of four hundred and sixty-six per year. Cook County was fortunate in having had a great fire.

The amount of wholly unnecessary labor involved can scarcely be overestimated. Every time a sale is made or a mortgage negotiated, this tedious work of tracing title must be proceeded with by the attorney of purchaser or mortgagee. Each time the cost will be from fifty to one hundred and fifty dollars. Thus, when the Jumel estate was divided into some thirteen hundred and eighty-three lots, nearly three hundred purchasers employed attorneys to conduct a similar number of searches, and, as time goes on, their purchasers and mortgagees will in turn proceed to a separate and distinct overhauling of records in an endeavor to trace title from the original patent. It is a house that Jack built extended *ad infinitum*.

Nor with all this labor is protection accorded against such defects dehors the record as subsequently discovered heirs, incapacity or nonage of grantor, dower rights, erroneous surveys, easements acquired by prescription, or title obtained by adverse possession. Some years ago, in New York City, certain tenement house premises were sold. An old couple living in two rooms were, it seems, the holders of an unrecorded deed. The new purchaser lost his venture, for the Court of Appeals held that possession gave implied notice as to any rights which the occupant might have.

But why multiply instances of the legion of defects which are inherent in our present methods? That the land registration act, as it exists in many States, entirely obviates all difficulty, there can be no question; and that the Massachusetts enactment is the most complete and logical statute ever passed by a law-making body, may be claimed with some show of reason.

A special court is provided, consisting of two judges, assisted by a Recorder.

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Registers of Deeds of the several counties are Assistant Recorders. Upon filing a petition in which are set forth known incumbrances and adverse claimants, with the names of all owners of adjoining lands, the matter is referred to an examiner, who within two weeks reports on the state of the title. If such title is found to be in the petitioner, notice of the filing of his application is published once per week for three successive weeks in a newspaper of the district in which the land lies. The return day is not less than twenty or more than sixty days. A copy is duly served on all adjoining owners and adverse claimants. On such return day, after or without contest on the part of adverse claimants, as the case may be, a decree of registration is entered, and the petitioner's title is confirmed. This decree is sent to the proper Assistant Recorder and by him filed among the records of his office. He thereupon issues a duplicate certificate of title to the owner. On one side appears the owner's name and a description of the land; on the other, memoranda of any incumbrances which have been found to exist. Subsequent transfers and mortgages are filed in the Register's office, and appropriate entries made on the certificate. Discharges of incumbrances are registered in like manner or by signing personally in the discharge column, on the back of the certificate. The ultimate cost to the land owner is but $2 for each $1,000 assessed value and about $20 additional.

Two points should be carefully borne in mind. First, that the act is not mandatory, but optional. No property owner who may prefer the old system of perpetual searching and endless expense is obliged to resort to the new method. If he does not desire his title registered, he is under no compulsion to have it done.

It is a sufficient commentary, however, upon the popularity of these proceedings, that over five hundred petitions have been filed, most of them within the past eighteen months.

During the first two years of the Court's existence, little business was transacted, because of a suit pending to test the constitutionality of the act. Its validity was affirmed by the Supreme Court of the State, and an appeal dismissed by the Supreme Court of the United States, though the latter failed to pass on the constitutional question. Now one petition may, and very often does, cover a tract which is afterwards split up into separate lots, so that a much larger number of titles must be regarded as having been affected. The writer is informed by Hon. Clarence C. Smith, Recorder, that the value of the property now under the operation of the land registration act, or pending in court, is approximately $5,000,000 and the number of registered mortgages something over $2,000,000. It was found on examination, a few months ago, that in the leading Registries of the State, Suffolk and Middlesex South District, registered mortgages were held by forty-two different banking institutions in and around Boston. One of the recent applications has been by the Commonwealth itself for the registration of an island and flats in Boston Harbor.

Secondly, it should be kept constantly in view that a title once certified is subject to no attack, collateral or direct. The certificate is conclusive evidence of ownership in the holder, in the absence of forgery or fraud, while his deed, symbolic of the old system, is but the front link in a long chain of evidence which may or may not constitute a good title in the grantee. Outside of Massachusetts and the States that have adopted the Torrens system, this fact of title is never judicially determined, but always remains the subject of ceaseless examination and conclusions of generation after generation of conveyancers.

While all assaults upon the title are precluded, yet if an error has been committed, whereby the owner of any portion of or interest in the property has been deprived of his right, such owner may bring suit against the Treasurer of the Commonwealth. Resort is had to an assurance fund, created out of the fees paid by the applicants for registration. The recovery is limited to the fair market value of his interest at the time of loss. Thus no longer is it possible for the holder of an undisclosed interest in a farm to allow any time short of twenty years to elapse (yes, even nineteen years and three hundred and sixty-four days) and then recover his proportionate share of the city plots with valuable buildings erected thereon, into which time has caused the property to develop. No more may blackmailing schemes be successfully carried out by which the owner

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of a valuable structure, who has inadvertently encroached an inch upon his neighbor's land, after careful though erroneous survey made, is forced to decide whether to pay an extortionate price or submit to have his wall torn out.

The act of Massachusetts has been discussed at length because it is the best of those now in force. In California, Illinois, Minnesota, and Oregon, proceedings are conducted through the existing courts, no new tribunal having been created—a manifest defect when we consider the volume of business already before the courts for determination, as well as the necessity of having a judge who is a "specialist" to pass upon this class of cases. In these jurisdictions, registration is not so speedy a proceeding as it is in the Bay State. Furthermore, the Legislature of Illinois added to their act a "local option" clause and, up to the present, Cook County has alone taken advantage of the new method. An important amendment upon which Cook County citizens will be asked to pass at the next election requires all executors and administrators and trustees holding title or power of sale under wills to apply within six months after their appointment to have registered the titles to all non-registered estates under their control. Colorado adopted the act recently. A proposed law is "hanging fire" in Virginia, Michigan, and the District of Columbia. In Iowa, Nebraska, Rhode Island, and Wisconsin, commissioners have been appointed to prepare an act or other official action taken with this end in view. An act practically identical with that of Massachusetts was put into operation in the Philippines on November 6, 1902. In the State bar associations of Maine, Missouri, New Mexico, Kentucky, Pennsylvania, North Dakota, Tennessee, Texas, Washington, and West Virginia, the matter has been taken up and discussed at one time or another, and in the majority of these States, legislative action will probably be sought at an early date. In Ohio, where an exceedingly crude and ill-considered act was passed, it was held unconstitutional, mainly on the ground that the notice to adverse claimants was inadequate. Instead of remedying this defect, by a subsequent enactment, the legislature weakly threw the whole system over and repealed the law.

Hitherto, a more extended adoption has been prevented both by the opposition of the title insurance companies, fearful of the almost complete collapse of their business which must inevitably, though gradually, follow the introduction of the Torrens Law, and also for the reason that realty owners are not generally aware of the advantages of the system. With a diffusion of knowledge as to its merits, there will arise a popular demand for its enactment, too strong for any legislature to resist.

It is to be hoped that the end of the next decade will find every State in this country sufficiently civilized to have a method of land registration as advanced as that of Siam, which country some time ago introduced the Torrens System.

TRADE UNIONS were defended on various grounds in a recent address by Prof. J. H. Gray of Northwestern University. "The labor organizations are not only a safeguard to the interests of laborers, but, under present circumstances, are necessary to prevent a general lowering of social and economic conditions."

In view of the number of deaths and physical injuries to working people for which industries are responsible, it is out of place to lay such emphasis on the small number of cases of violence as Dr. Hillis has done. Under the present competitive system, employers are driven to drive their employees, with manifold evils as a result. Such is the tendency to increase child labor, the insanitary conditions of workshops which carry off so many artisans, and the enormous number of accidental deaths and physical injuries to working people.

"America is the only country that has not wrestled with that difficulty in an adequate way. Nearly all European nations have established complete systems of insurance of working people against accident, sickness, and old age.

"America, in failing to make adequate compensation to those who suffer industrial accidents, hides behind antiquated legal theories. German statistics prove that in this age of complex machinery accidents are due to no negligence, but are necessary concomitants of machinery production. Society gets the benefit of machinery and should bear the burden.

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Trade Union Perils.

BY

CLARENCE S. DARROW.

THE marvelous growth of trade unionism within the past few years has been due to causes mainly outside the control of workingmen. A long period of prosperity in the United States, the increasing use of steam and electricity; the rapid change of industries from small to large owners called into being the great trusts that have marked the industrial conditions in the last five years. No such period of trust-making and organizing was ever before known in the history of the world. This change in production increased prices, built up enormous fortunes, and called for the employment of great numbers of men in individual industries, and with it the destruction of many industries managed upon a small scale. With the increased cost of living, the monopolization of production, and the general demands for labor, it was comparatively easy to strengthen trade unions. It was absolutely necessary to increase wages, for with increased prices labor could not live upon what it had formerly received. Aside from this, manufactured products can only be sold in a large way to the laboring man, and without increasing wages it is impossible to increase business.

CLARENCE S. DARROW.

The effort to increase wages, together with the general demand for labor, doing away with the unemployed, has caused the great growth of unionism which followed upon the great growth of trusts. Trade unionism is really in its last analysis the effort to monopolize the labor market, in the same line as the trust is the effort to monopolize production. While trade unionism historically means much more, still, after all is said and done, the root of trade unionism and its strength and power come from the purpose of creating a monopoly of labor. Whatever it does to raise wages is done by creating within itself so large a monopoly of labor, that has complete control of prices, exactly the same as the manufacturer by creating a monopoly of his product is able to control the price of his output.

Aside from this, trade unionism historically considered has been perhaps the greatest means of improving the condition of the working man. It has done this by organizing forces which would stand for the weak and the poor, and thus giving them a protection which they could not have when friendless and alone. Its growth has come from this attitude, that on the whole it stood for justice and for improving the conditions of the common man.

The great growth of trade unionism in the last few years has taken into its body large numbers of men who were not fa-

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miliar with its principles or its value; whose one desire has been to better their condition; who have not the understanding of affairs to recognize the relation that trade unionism bears to general progress, and who, therefore, have narrow views as to its management, control, and use. In addition to this, large numbers of workingmen have joined trade unions for the purpose of buying their peace with their fellow-workingmen. They have joined as many men join the church, with no thought as to what it meant, and no belief in its tenets, but simply because it is easier to belong to the church than to stand outside. The large body of trade unionists are not really trade unionists at heart; are not interested in its movements; do not understand it, and do not care for it. The growth of trade unionism has also given the workingman a knowledge of its power —in many instances a false conception of its power. This necessarily has often tended to arrogance, unreasonable demands, and to hasty actions. It would be impossible to organize so vast a body of men in so short a space of time without producing this result, and the wonder is that this great mass has been so well controlled, rather than so poorly managed.

Then, too, with their newly-found power, trade unions have necessarily, in many instances, disorganized business, often caused personal annoyance, sometimes positive injury, and these have had a tendency to create adverse sentiment among the unthinking class against trade unionism itself. Employers, too, find it much easier than the workingman to combine, and the growth of trade unionism has often meant annoyance to their business, as it invariably meant a demand upon the part of their workingmen for things, which, from their view, were in their province alone.

With the growing power of trade unionism it is but natural to expect that the employers would use still greater efforts to prevent organization. In this movement they have the sympathy from the middle class, not interested upon either side, who feel and see directly the annoyance which often follows the organization of labor as well as from all changes of whatever sort.

Then, too, the employers as a class have greater means of presenting their opinions to the public; better access to the press; to the periodicals; to the speakers and writers, and in all ways are able to reach and create public opinion more readily than the poor and weak.

The great growth of trade unionism has caused its greatest peril. While it was remote from the masses of men, it was given little attention; while it was weak and submissive, no powerful forces were called into requisition to fight and destroy it. But as it has grown strong and aggressive, reactionary force must be expected to be called into operation to defeat its purposes and its ends. But still more dangerous to trade unionism is the modern tendency of the bodies themselves to ignore political and ethical questions of industry and government, and direct their attention entirely to the betterment of wages, and to the more immediate affairs that influence man.

When all is said and done the power of public opinion is the one controlling power in the world. This influences and absolutely determines the conduct of all men, in whatsoever station. A sufficient public opinion will preserve trade unionism. A strong hostile public opinion will destroy it. So, above all things else, it is necessary that public opinion shall be with any movement that ultimately succeeds. Public opinion, while often misguided and misused, still, for a long period of time, must be founded, and is founded, upon substantial facts and reasons. Trade unionism has fought its long battle and won its well-earned victories because it deserved to have the public on its side, because it stood for something more than individual selfishness; because it really meant the up-building of the race. If it should lose its moral force, and descend to pure selfishness, it is bound to fail.

In the great growth of trade unionism in the last two or three years many of the members seem to have lost sight of these fundamental principles, which in the end must control. While the manufacturer on the one hand and trade unionism on the other may build up artificial monopolies that will last for a day, still natural laws are always at work, and in the end must prevail. It would be impossible through a long series of years for the manufacturer or the merchant to maintain prices beyond the limit that is marked

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by natural conditions; it is impossible, likewise, for labor organization, however strong, to maintain wages for a long period of time beyond the limit marked by natural causes.

Any permanent advance in the condition of the workingman must come from two causes: First, a creation of natural conditions that will cause increased production; secondly, a natural condition that will cause more equitable distribution of wealth. When trade unionism does not work to accomplish these two results it does not work to improve permanently the condition of the laboring man. These results can only come about by a change of industrial conditions through a change of laws and through a change of industrial institutions. The trade union movement that does nothing toward preventing the monopoly of the lands and the resources of nature, does not build for any permanent improvement of the working class.

With the movements on the part of corporations to control the resources of nature has gone, also, the power that comes from large operations. There is doubtless economy in doing business upon a large scale. In so far as trusts and corporations make for the doing of business upon a large scale, they are natural and right; so far as trusts and corporations have come from the ownership of natural resources they are unnatural and pernicious. But if the doing of business upon a large scale in itself adds to production, then such changes in the method of production must come as will give each worker his share of this increased production. In other words, the march of improvement must be toward co-operation. This, too, can come only from changed laws and changed industrial institutions.

The question of a permanent improvement of conditions is really a political question, and when trade unions ignore political questions they abandon every real right they have to life. Unless some substantial gain toward better political conditions shall come from this great growth of trade unionism, then this growth will be entirely in vain. Simply raising of wages, while absolutely necessary in most instances, can really accomplish no practical result. No men who have studied industrial conditions, with any sympathy for the poor, have ever believed that the workingman received anything like the amount he ought to have; but simply raising wages without changing industrial conditions avails nothing.

To keep wages sufficiently high by means of trade unionism is a well-nigh impossible task, for trade unions are not ultimates, they are simply methods of war; they are simply necessary in an industrial condition that is not ideal, where one class is arrayed against another. In an ideal life there would be no trade unions, as there would be no corporations and no monopolies, and while this ideal condition may never come, still every movement in the line of progress must be toward the ideal. All of these movements are like diseases. Men catch trade unionism, speculation, combination, as they catch the measles or the mumps. Capital has caught the fever of combination until it has gone mad over corporations and trusts; until everybody is holding watered stock. Likewise, labor has caught the fever of trade unionism, and without knowing what it means, historically, or realizing how it may be of real service to the world, has turned its power and energy in the direction of building up organizations. The wonderful energy and power now turned toward organization alone must some time be directed to political power, or turned to substantial methods for bettering industrial conditions rather than gaining temporary or personal advantages.

The leaders of trade unionism, if they are wise and prudent men, must carefully study the social and industrial problems of the day; they must interest their members in the question of a change of the laws and institutions so that greater production must come, and that this production may be more equitably distributed among all the people of the world.

The foregoing address by Mr. Darrow has called out much comment. Among others, Samuel Gompers, President of the American Federation of Labor, claims that labor unions have reduced hours of labor, but not limited production thereby, or otherwise sought to limit it. He also denies that raising wages raises the price of the product; since, as wages are raised, new and better machinery with the highest developed propelling forces are introduced to lessen cost of production.

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The Reclaiming of the Truant.

BY

EDWARD B. CLARK.

SEARCH for and find, if you can, a father and a mother who will not say that the responsibilities of a parent are greater than all other responsibilities that life imposes. What must be the feeling of burden on heart and mind and conscience of the two men who stand in the places of parents to some thousands of the wayward—not the wicked, mind you—children of Chicago? This great city has an institution, called the Parental School, designed for receiving and sheltering children that are habitual truants. The fathers and mothers of the boys who hate the schoolroom try the extremes of moral suasion and the whiplash, but the boys still run away. Then it is that two men put themselves, so to speak, *in loco parentis* and see to it that truant and text-book are brought together and kept together until study becomes with the boy a pleasant habit, and he may be allowed to return to his desk in the public school room with little fear that he will be tempted to seek again the old paths of truancy.

W. LESTER BODINE.
Superintendent of Compulsory Education for Chicago.

The two men doing this work for the many children of Chicago that have broken from parental control are W. Lester Bodine, the superintendent of Compulsory Education, and Thomas H. MacQueary, superintendent of the Parental School. Those who have watched the work and judge by the fruits thereof, say that these two officials of the city are broadminded enough and conscientious enough to make their labor so effective that, in the years to come, the lives of the men whose wandering steps in childhood were directed aright will be their best eulogy.

The city of Chicago has a large, handsome building, modern in every detail, and known as the Parental School. It is situated in the northern suburb of Bowmanville. About the main building are grouped dormitory cottages. The cottage plan has been adopted wisely, because, in a word, it makes possible "the individualizing of the boy." The truants that are sent to the Parental School are divided into groups, or families, as they are called, and each group is assigned to a cottage where a family officer and a matron are in charge.

It must be understood that the boys in the school go there as habitual truants committed by the courts. There is, however, nothing of the prison about the Parental School. Bars and bolts are conspicuous by their absence. The keynote of the place is that salvation is not necessarily secured through punishment. The boys are well fed, well clothed, and well instructed. In

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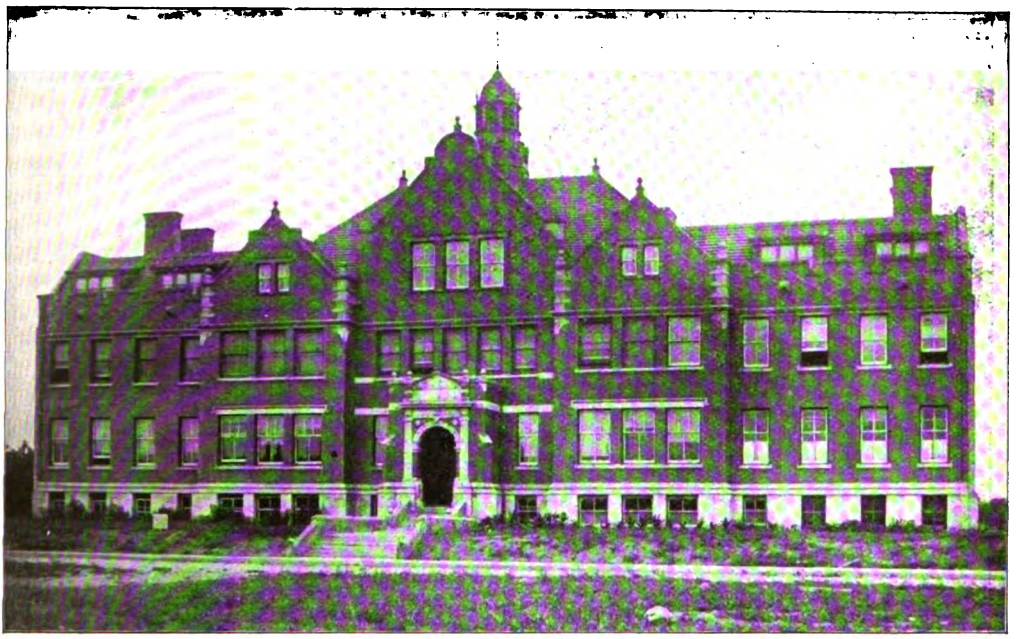

PARENTAL SCHOOL, BOWMANVILLE, ILL.

the summer time each is given a piece of ground on the adjacent farm, and this he sows, tends and reaps. Manual training is a part of his instruction and military drill aids in inuring him to discipline.

This Parental School, situated in a great cosmopolitan city, has under its roof children of many of the races of the world. Someone has said aptly that truancy knows no nation, and the truth of the saying is fairly well proved by the features and complexions of the lads at Bowmanville. Superintendent MacQueary has succeeded in coalescing the different types until they are in truth as they are in name, one family. The truants are kept at the Parental School until it is thought they have acquired a habit of steadiness. Then they are allowed to return to their homes upon probation. There they are sent back to the public school desk from which they were once so eager to escape, and if they stay by desk and book, resisting the temptation of the Arab life of the streets, the Parental School knows them no more. Should they return to the ways of truancy, back to Bowmanville they go under the propulsion of the arm of the law, and there stay until it be known beyond a peradventure that reform has "struck in" to mind and body.

It must not be supposed for an instant that all truants are sent to the Parental School. Those apparently incorrigible are the only ones to make the journey to the Bowmanville suburb. W. Lester Bodine, the superintendent of compulsory education, has as one might say a "saving disposition." Saving children is one of his hobbies. The work of the compulsory education department of the Chicago schools has attracted attention in every educational center in the United States. A prominent eastern educator has said that the Chicago superintendent on taking office "galvanized the corpse of compulsory education."

The investigation into cases of reported inexcusable absences from school in one period of little more than eight months, numbered 31,593, and during the same period 16,781 children were sent back to their desks.

The work of the compulsory education department is highly interesting. Superintendent Bodine has twenty men and women as assistants. The city is mapped out into districts with one truant officer assigned to each. The officers secure lists of absentees, with their ages and addresses from the principals of the schools; and it then becomes the duty

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A TYPICAL TRUANT.

of the officers to find out if there is a justifiable excuse for the absence of the children. If no such excuse exists, the runaways are taken to the school, and if thereafter they persist in their truancy the courts are appealed to and the Parental School receives a new batch of charges.

It is the street children—those who put in no appearance at school and whose names therefore are not enrolled—that, taken collectively, form one of the most perplexing problems for the solution of the compulsory education department. Superintendent Bodine has solved it. Squads of men and women assistants are formed, and regularly organized raids are made. Sometimes, the swooping down of the officials occurs at the door of a cheap theater where children of school age have paid their pennies for seats in the gallery to witness some play which may have for its motive the exalting of train robbery or border ruffianism as a pursuit in life. At other times the raids are made on the streets, the truant officers separating and then closing in at some designated street corner. This method is something like drawing a net, and the children of the street, like the fish of the sea, are gathered in.

All these waifs and strays of the street are sent to school, and if they break away the officials bear down on them once more, and then it is the court, Bowmanville, and the care and steady supervision of Superintendent MacQueary.

When the East heard that Superintendent Bodine intended raiding the streets and gathering in the truants by physical force, it said that the plan was not only impracticable, but also dangerous, and that the Chicago official and his men and women assistants would be shot, possibly by the boys and probably by irate parents. Mr. Bodine started his raids and now Philadelphia, New York, Boston, and

ANOTHER TRUANT TYPE.

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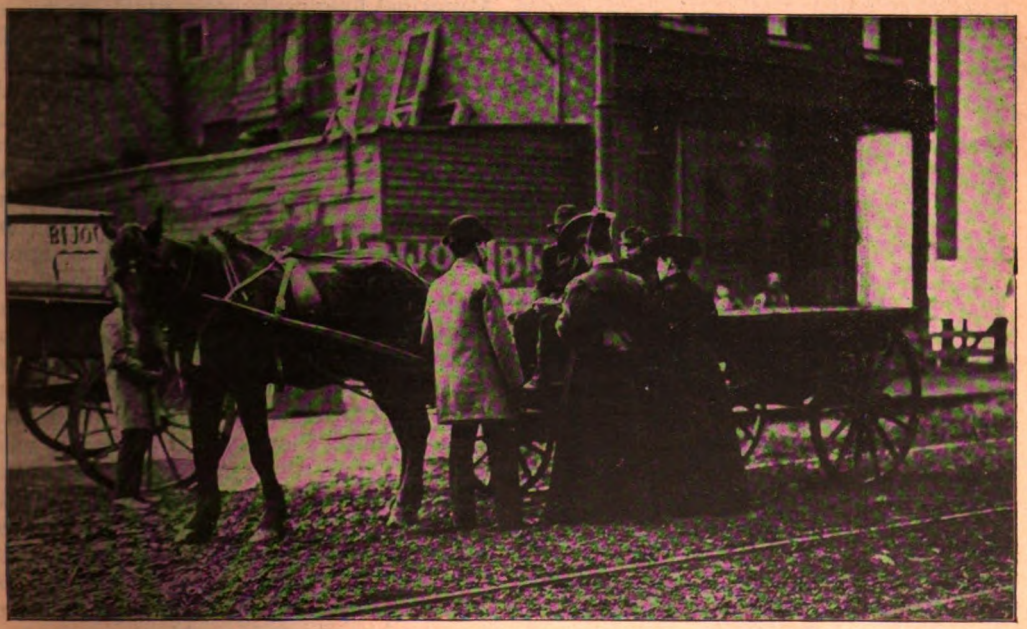
TRUANT OFFICERS QUESTIONING BOY ON THE STREET.

other scoffing centers have followed the lead of Chicago, and are using this city's methods in the capture and holding of the truants. It must be said here that the work has in it an element of danger and that the women officials meet it as courageously as do the men. The official compulsory education phalanx is small, but its work is well done. In this matter of enforcing education more than in anything else, perhaps, does the future of the many depend upon the faithfulness of the few.



TRUANT OFFICERS QUESTIONING BOY ON A WAGON.

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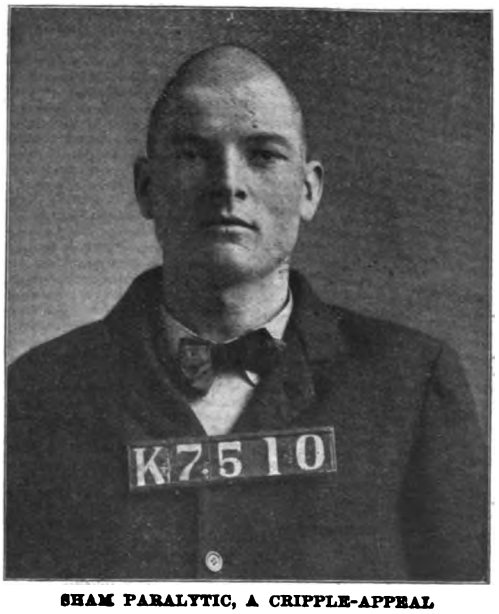
The Vagrant: Social Parasite or Social Product?

BY

WILLIAM H. ALLEN, Ph. D.,

General Agent of the New York Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor.

FOR thirty years this national body has been discussing the vagrant, nearly fourscore of speakers having expounded his crimes against society. In looking over the addresses it appears that little advance has been made in all these years by way of characterizing the tramp and beggar. In fact the speaker was overwhelmed with the hopelessness of finding anything new to say when in his crab pace through the records he found that twenty-six years ago the tramp had been described as a "lazy, shiftless, sauntering or swaggering, ill-conditioned, irreclaimable, incorrigible utterly depraved savage." The reflection that this impressionist sketch emanated from a mere college professor, not from the unacademic, practical conference, encouraged a wider reading, which in turn happily demonstrated a considerable percentage of vagrants to be reclaimable, corrigible and subject to education in self-support. Of certain experimental stations we shall hear this morning, and we hope that from every section will be presented testimony to prove that vagrancy can be made so rare that Happy Hooligan on stage, bill board or Sunday supplement would be as unintelligible as he is now unæsthetic.



SHAM PARALYTIC, A CRIPPLE-APPEAL SPECIALIST.

This conference has since 1873 repeatedly committed itself to the belief that vagrancy is a curable disease which needs some surgery, some hospital and dispensary treatment, some house to house nursing and frequent isolation and disinfection. Municipal lodging houses, work on public roads, friendly visiting, probation, agricultural colonies, long term sentences to prison labor, employment bureaus, have all succeeded, each in its own way, in giving certain districts partial immunity from certain phases of the disease. We know enough to-day about the psychology of vagrants to be absolutely sure that a concerted attempt in country and city to apply that knowledge would drive vagrants to cover. But we know, too, that if the municipal lodging house, woodyards, and associations for improving the condition of the poor should reinstate all vagrants who will accept work treatment, and if the vagrancy police should segregrate all who will not work, the removal of these restraining forces for one week would be followed by a flood of vagrancy. In other words we know that there is a source outside the vagrant himself which propagates vagrancy. If the vagrant were a mere parasite his removal would cause the ex-

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PROFESSIONAL YEGG.
Began life as a street waif, now closing it in New York City workhouse.

tinction of his kind. That his elimination fails to result thus demonstrates that he is not the cause of the disease, is not himself the disease, but merely the putrid infected product, an excrescent growth organically dependent upon the body social, whose thorough treatment must be from within the body itself.

If for more than a generation we have added little either to our understanding of the recipient vagrant or to the principles of eliminating him, we wish to suggest that our failure is due in part to defective premises. We have failed, as we still fail, to distinguish adequately between the evil vagrancy and its manifestations in some particular Dusty Fields recently from Guam or some native of Germany whose name is "Mary Cassidy, sir." Are we not open to the charge that in our printed and spoken invectives we have made a scapegoat of a profession which, in the public mind, has few of the attributes with which we invest it? The feeble, blind granny who begs from door to door and the slinking mendicant who wants only a cup of coffee, are these vicious criminals? The polite ex-soldier, who is hurrying as rapidly as a gullible public will permit to the death bed of his favorite sister in the next city, is not a barn burner or incipient murderer. Givers know that in the vast majority of cases their gifts to beggars and tramps would never have gone to the deserving poor, but rather to some luxury which would have given far less satisfaction than the beggar's dole. The vagrant accepts a donation with the conviction that he has brightened the day for his benefactor. He knows that he sells merit to masquerading philanthropy and ideas to the funny man, the marginal utility to each individual purchaser being greater than from a like expenditure in gum, cigars or vaudeville. Weary Walker and Herr Prof. Von Zo and Zo know, and the indiscriminate givers know, that the vagrant is at the close of every transaction the creditor. Attempts to commit the public to a belief in his total depravity, criminality, hardheartedness or expensiveness will continue to be generally ineffective because such belief is contrary to every-day experience and observation.

Another phase of vagrancy we submit for discussion this morning, infecting a far larger number of people and representing a far graver menace to social welfare, the source and support of the individual vagrant and the stronghold of the disease. I refer to the vagrancy of giving, that tramp philanthropy, that superficial samaritanism, that vagrant interest in one's fellow man which purchases self-complacency, relief from annoyance, reputation

WANTS TO BURY HIS DEAD BROTHER.

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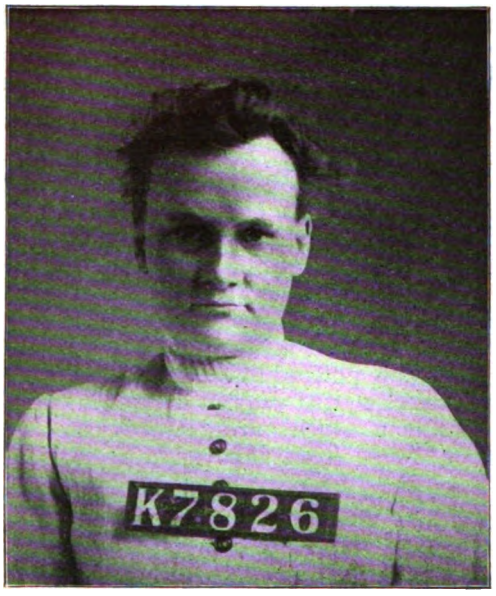
for generosity, and spurious mortgages on mansions in the skies from vendors of hard-luck stories, inventors of mutilated limbs, and exhibitors of moral and physical deformities. The real vagrancy is the vagrancy of intellect and sympathy, whether the gift be a mite or a million, which attempts to obtain satisfaction entirely out of proportion to the thought and time expended in giving, which confuses alms with justice and relief. It is the recipient who is wronged, not the giver. The blinds and poses which vagrant givers affect, and the falsehoods they tell themselves, are less excusable than the ruses of the street beggar or the idyls of the tramp. The indis-



CHARITY CONFIDENCE WOMAN.
Given six months for forgery.

criminate giver is the quack doctor practicing contrary to established rules of cure, wronging the patient, body and soul, arresting the progress of healing science and disseminating infection. It is as uncharitable and as reprehensible for an individual unlicensed citizen on the street to prescribe for vagrancy as for hydrophobia or typhoid fever. Our problem is primarily to convince and correct this citizen giver rather than to convince and reclaim the tramp. We shall never be rid of the man who would rather beg than saw wood; we may hope to be rid of the man who would rather give a nickel to an able-bodied beggar than send him to an agency which can make him self-supporting.

If these premises are correct, if the vagrancy census is but an index to perverted charity, to ignorant or vagrant giving, then it is a matter of comparative indifference just which one hundred thousand men and women shall tramp and beg; we must abandon hope of solving the vagrancy problem by direct treatment of the recipient vagrant; and our vagrancy legislation, our lodging houses, vagrancy police, woodyards, and agricultural colonies must be adapted primarily to teaching givers the superiority of thorough over vagrant giving. Would not our work for the tramp and beggar become more fruitful and encouraging if we were endeavoring through him to achieve the permanent betterment of those classes which are above the margin of economic efficiency? Instead of saying to the public, "Do not be a party to the vagrant's offense against society," we would say, "Do not wrong the vagrant, do not make him a party to your offense against society." The difference in attitude and in result is analogous to that between the conventional card prohibiting expectoration on a penalty of fine or imprisonment or both and the statement in Belfast's tramways—"Spitting is a vile and filthy habit and those who indulge in it subject themselves to the loathing and disgust of their fellow passengers." By changing our premises so as to emphasize the vagrant giver's wrong to the tramp and beggar, to himself, and to society, we may hope to make him conscious of his meanness and thus reach vagrancy at its source.

Nor is this distinction merely theoretical. On the contrary it is very practical, for it directs certain positive remedial steps whose inauguration this conference can effect. In sketching hastily two or three desiderata, I have thought it expedient, because expeditious, to present the suggestions in the form of affirmations.

1. A complete vagrancy census is indispensable. A committee of this body could secure such census. But to that end it is necessary to obtain the co-operation of city, county and State, statistical authorities as well as those of private and sectarian charity. A system of uniform blanks could be devised which would give the number of beggars and tramps officially relieved. This committee could do great ser-

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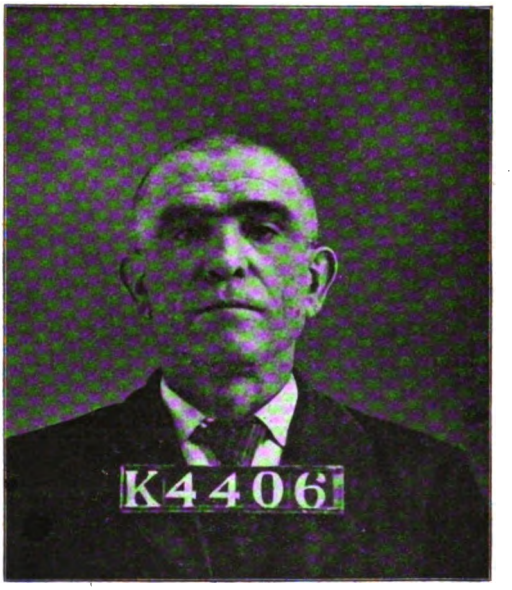
vice through syndicated articles and press notices, State conferences or religious and charitable bodies. It could do little in one year, somewhat more in five, and a great deal in ten years. Occasional reports on limited phases of the problem will accomplish little. Continuous cumulative effects must be achieved. Such a committee would entail considerable expense of time and money. We can never solve the vagrancy problem until this work is done. Is it worth while?

2. Existing agencies might effectually assist the national committee by co-operating among themselves in establishing a clearing house of information regarding vagrants relieved or in using existing registration bureaus. It is practicable for the various agencies in New York or Philadelphia or Atlanta to send to a common clearing house a description similar to that which Mr. Forbes will describe as now in use by certain co-operating police departments. For the establishment and conduct of such a clearing house little money is needed, but rather a willingness to co-operate. Is this worth while?

3. We must tell the truth and the whole truth, not intermittently, but always, about mission coffee, Sunday breakfasts, curbstone sociology, and similar debauchery of generous impulse. Religious emotion should not become the instrument of harm to the body and soul of the vagrant even in the name of religion. Dare we insist upon religious inspiration which will incapacitate a man to stand "three good conversions a week without bodily injury?" Dare we weigh the possible good which comes from one conversion against the certain harm which comes from saturating a hundred vagrants in hypocrisy?

4. A study of salaries and wages paid those who detect vagrancy and determine and record its treatment would be of invaluable service in solving the vagrancy problem. We now demand so little from the overseer of the poor, from the mission preacher, and too often from the friendly visitor, that we can place little reliance upon any deductions regarding adequate and inadequate relief, mendicancy, and indigence. This conference could, from a detailed study of qualifications possessed by those who distribute material and spiritual relief to the vagrant, discover to what extent so-called organized charity is preserving the traditional belief that anyone is good enough to be overseer of the poor or mission preacher. Dare we be honest in discussing friendly visitors and vagrant giving? Dare we demand of friendly visitors the same training that we demand of paid visitors? If not, can we deny that in the name of organized charity we are ourselves guilty of indiscriminate giving? By emphasizing friendly visiting, the "encouragement of the individual philanthropic impulse," "the preservation of the fountain springs of private charity" we are causing to persist the theory of house vs. hospital healing. We cannot cure vagrancy unless we proclaim universally that it is not charity for a layman to prescribe remedies where trained physician and hospital are at hand. We must hope to educate givers to the point where they will be generous for the sake of permanently mitigating human suffering and increasing human happiness, not to gratify a personal impulse.



PROFESSIONAL PATRIOT, SHEDDING OCEANS OF TEARS FOR OLD IRELAND.
Sentenced for one year.

5. Provision is lacking in small communities for adequate relief. Such provision must be made before one can persuade generous persons to deny street alms to vagrants.

6. This body can do much to teach

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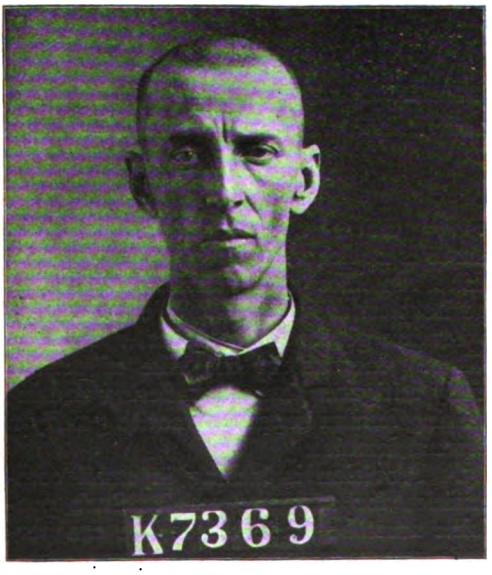
right principles of political organization or at least to minimize the antagonism to social and political legislation which too often emanates from the strong supporters of this conference because of the fetish, "local self-government." Is it too much to say that the vagrancy problem will never be solved until responsibilty for the tramps and beggars is lodged in State governments? We shall hear of the Massachusetts plan of centralization, State workhouses, indeterminate sentences, and State probation. Is it worth while to judge of local self-government in the light of twentieth century problems rather than eighteenth century theory?

7. This body can be instrumental in removing the stigma from public charity and in promoting its administration. Is it not one of the anomalies of our generation that philanthropists have assumed a double personality, refusing as citizens the means of adequate relief which they preach and provide as philanthropists? Can we hope that the problem of vagrancy, of reinstating or segregating those who are temporarily or permanently below the margin of economic efficiency, will ever be solved until the workers and the interested representatives in this body apply themselves, not to exposing the weaknesses of public relief agencies but to dignifying their responsibilty? To give adequate attention to public relief agencies would require the suspension for a time of judgments which this conference has assisted in the past to crystalize into so-called scientific principles.

PHILANTHROPIC COLLECTOR; A CONFIRMED ALTRUIST.
Serving three years and eleven months for obtaining money under false pretenses.



BEGGING LETTER ARTIST.
At large now; wanted for recent offenses.

[An address delivered before the National Conference of Charities and Correction at Atlanta, Georgia, May 7, 1903. The photographs which accompany this article were loaned by James Forbes, Chief of the New York City Vagrancy Police Squad. Mr. Forbes has grappled with the problem of vagrancy with a success unprecedented in America. In addition to freeing the streets of New York from professional mendicants and hoboes, Mr. Forbes has succeeded in making self-supporting a large number of men and women after their sentences have been served. It is not an exaggeration to say that the universal adoption of Mr. Forbes' attitude toward both the public and the vagrant would at one and the same time educate the giver, eliminate the professional vagrant, and secure the means of reinstating all who are willing to accept work treatment.]

[So far as organized charity signifies adequate relief, its precepts must be preserved. The scientific spirit must prevail, not hap-hazard effort, in order to realize the best results and prevent waste of time and money.]

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The Government Weather Service.

BY

M. W. HARRINGTON,

Ex-Chief of the U. S. Weather Bureau.

THAT modernest government development of scientific work which predicts the weather depends on a couple of very simple principles, not known until it was possible to make the weather map, the key to practical meteorology. The weather map makes known the simultaneous condition of the weather over large areas. Before that was made no safe conclusions could be drawn, for observations were taken at local hours, not at the same hour of absolute time, say that of Washington city at eight of the morning or evening. When a succession of weather maps are examined, almost at once two important facts come to view, and these are the basis of modern meteorology. The first of these is that the weather shifts eastward in the temperate regions and westward in the tropics. That is, the weather comes from the west in our latitudes, and from farther east in the hotter countries. In the intermediate region, as on the coast of the Gulf of Mexico, it goes from equator toward pole, northward, therefore, on our southern coast. This progress of the weather from west to east is, in our latitudes, an unceasing one; and though subject, like everything else natural, to very great variations and changes, it has about the speed of an express train, that is, of about five hundred miles a day. A man may start by rail from Denver or St. Paul or Butte, and keep ahead of a storm all the way to Chicago, or even to New York or to Boston.

The second elementary fact that stands out plainly from the weather map is that the shifting weather consists chiefly of a series of great whirls, almost always of the gentlest nature. One or more points on a large weather map, as of the United States and the southern part of the Dominion, can always be found which are centers of an inflow, or an outflow, of spirally directed wind. The inflow is the more interesting and the more curved, and at its center the barometer is lowest, the clouds thickest, and rain or snow may occur. This is the storm-center or "low." At the center of the outflow the sky is clearest, the barometer highest, the wind gentlest, and the extremes of temperature generally greater than at other times; and higher heat in the day, more frost at night. This is the "high," and during it occur the hot spells in summer and the unreasonable frosts of spring and autumn. And these highs and lows keep up a stately progress toward the east almost constantly, the low progressing more regularly, the high more haltingly. And the weather between the two is intermediate weather, with some characteristics of its own besides, for here may occur the comparatively small, local and temporary thunderstorms and some other things of interest but too detailed to give here.

The facts above stated, simple as they are, were slow in coming to the knowledge of students of meteorology, because they depended on a special coöperation when men all over the country must put themselves to the trouble of taking observations at unseasonable hours, and few suspected that that was worth while. The old meteorological observers were asked to take their observations about meal times and bedtime, and they good naturedly did so without pay. The new observers may have to take their observations at midnight, or at three in the morning, so as to make them synchronous with the observations of others. Of course, the stately march of the weather eastward has been suspected from time to time by bright men. Franklin somewhere recorded that the northeasters of Boston, the worst

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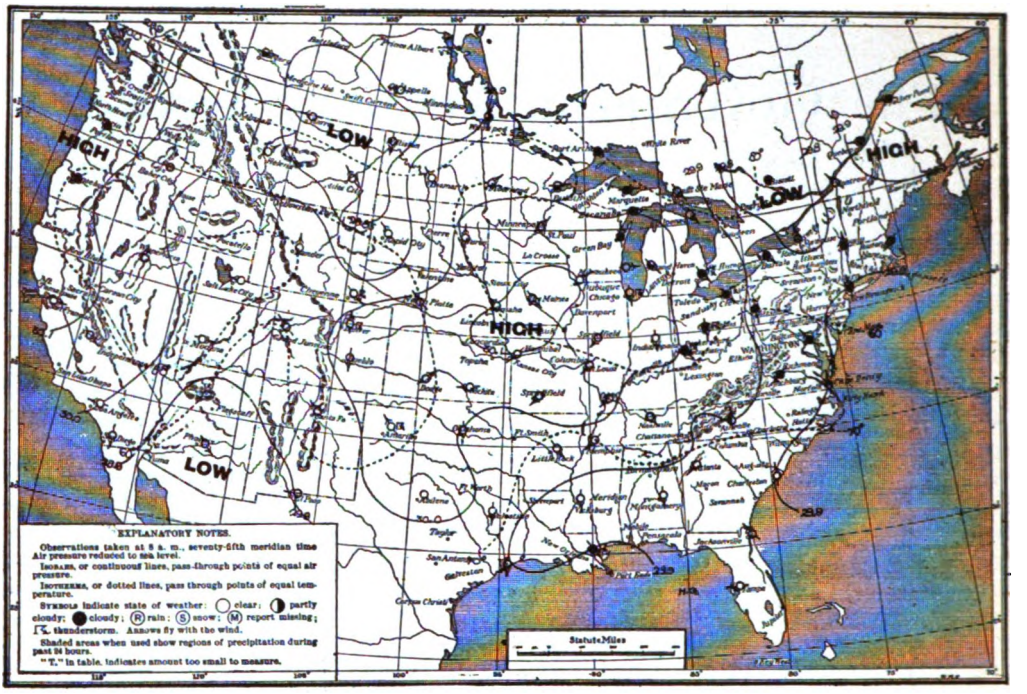

TRACKS OF CENTERS OF HIGH AREAS, JUNE, 1901.
The arrows show that the direction is eastward.

storms of New England, appeared first at Philadelphia. And Thomas Jefferson, a many-sided man, and always an investigator of nature, besides being twice president of the United States, arranged with Bishop Madison of Virginia to co-operate with him in taking barometric observations at Monticello, while Jefferson took them at Charlottesville, hoping to learn if the changes in air pressure were propagated in any direction. The geographical arrangement was not favorable and nothing seems to have come of it. This president was not only a profound politician, but also a genuine scholar, always working at some scheme to benefit mankind socially or intellectually. From manuscript memoranda in his own handwriting it appears that during the tempestuous constitutional convention at Philadelphia, Jefferson bought a thermometer (and made a minute of the price) and occupied his leisure moments in that trying time in studying the temperatures of the city.

The Smithsonian Institution detected this march of the weather, even with observations at local hours; and, when the telegraph was at last successfully set to work along the Atlantic seaboard, it was thought by the well-informed that its chief use would be to collect the weather data for the purpose of prediction. It was left for a singularly unnoticed man of science to actually, usefully employ the telegraph for weather predicton under private auspices. It was Professor Cleveland Abbe, then an astronomer at Cincinnati, now and always first assistant in the Weather Bureau, who, not long after the Civil War, persuaded the Western Union Telegraph Company and the local commercial bodies to unite with him to this end. He thus collected the data daily and posted the predictions, and this small but intensely healthful beginning on a local scale, due to the energy of a lone scientist, early developed into the Signal Service meteorological work, which in turn became, some twenty years later, an independent bureau in the Agricultural Department.

The rotary theory of storms had somewhat the same history. Colonel Reid, not an American, was the second to discover it, and the first was an American sailor named Captain Redfield, though this fact is often overlooked. The weather map was actually used by them in their studies of hurricanes. Thus, these terrific paroxysms

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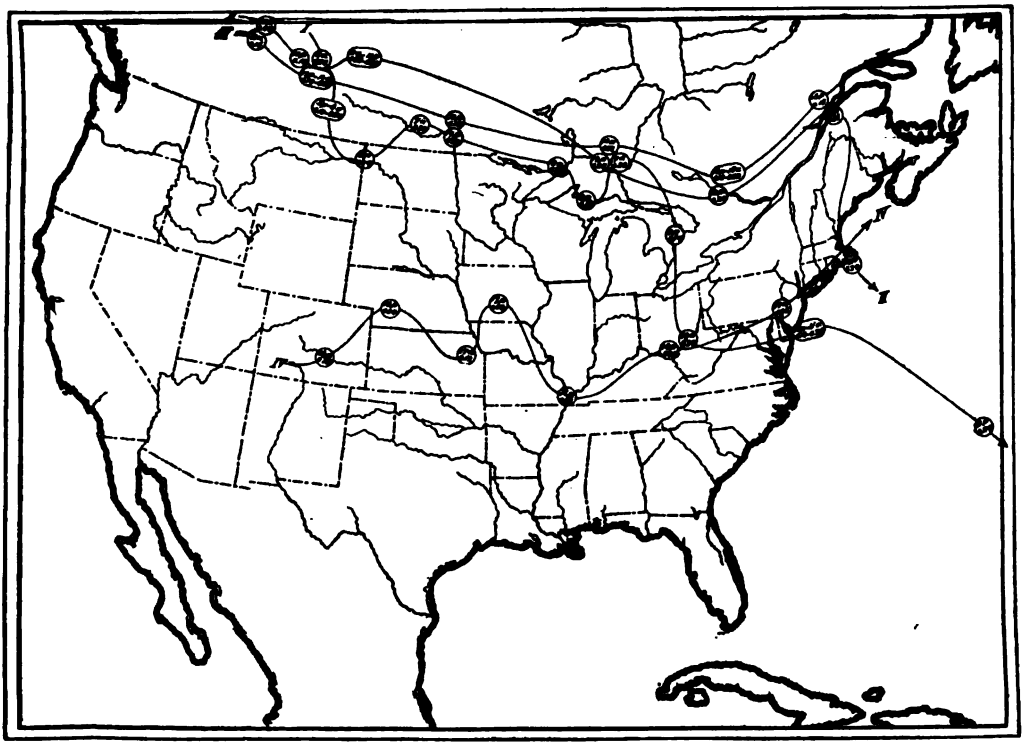
of the air, the mystery of all the ages of navigation, were, three-quarters of a century ago, discovered to be savage whirlpools, maelstroms in the air, inflowing about a point of lowest barometer, and having a fairly definite path and a rate of progress conformable to the rules stated before, though discovered a score or two of years later. The "lows" are moderate, temperate hurricanes: the hurricanes and typhoons are intense, dynamic, tropical "lows," not occurring in higher latitudes. Tornadoes are small, local but intense "lows" of temporary character, lasting but a few hours at most, while the larger "lows" last days, or even a week or two.

The Weather Bureau collects its information by telegraph, and for a short time twice a day the whole telegraphic system of the country is at its service to the exclusion of all other business whatsoever. The telegrams are sent in cipher, to secure their correct, careful transmission, and are received in the Bureau office by its own operator. They are at once translated and entered by experts on a manuscript weather map, and from this map predictions are drawn for a day or two ahead. This work is all done with great speed, and probably within three hours after the observations are taken at El Paso and Seattle, and in Alberta and Nova Scotia, the predictions based on them are ready for use by the Dominion and the States exchange observations. The predictions, once made, are telegraphed whenever wanted, and can be put into the morning or evening papers, as the case may be. They are there read by myriads, or can be if wanted. And they are, besides, posted in public places in city and town and village, and they are sent to any person desiring them for good reason. The only great class that needs the predictions and is not yet fully reached is the rural population, and if they are not reached in time it is because they cannot be. Many methods have been tried, such as carrying the symbols on railway trains, semaphores, firing cannon for special warnings, and so on; but they are lacking in practicality, and the only genuine solution of the difficulty seems to be in the extension of the telephone to the very



UNITED STATES WEATHER MAP.

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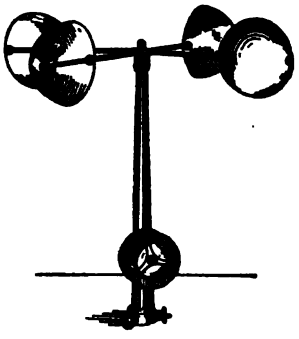
dwelling of the farmer. That this will come in time cannot be doubted. The weather service has been found so useful that it has been extended to all civilized nations. Even Japan has her own weather service, and the Australian colonies have each one. The Russian service and the German services are most excellent, but the American is generally conceded to be the best of all, as it is, by far, the most expensive.

The observer at the stations, scattered over the country wherever needed, is aided by the most elaborate and perfect instruments that are of practical value in such work. In the larger stations all the instruments make a continuous automatic record, and thus the weather for any instant can be determined whenever needed, as in some low cases. The cloudiness is not recorded directly, however, but a partial record is given by the sunshine recorder, wherever that is in the outfit. Almost any meteorological fact can be resurrected for any hour or minute by the observers at the larger and better equipped stations, and in some degree at the smaller ones. It is sometimes said that machines can not lie, yet automatic registries are not necessarily exact, though near enough for all practical purposes. For instance, the four cups that spin in a circle above every weather office are the working parts of a machine which measures and registers the velocity of the wind and is called the anemometer. Though this machine works perfectly, it can not instantly adjust itself to changes of the wind; and a gusty wind is therefore not perfectly registered by it, but the extremes are somewhat slurred and a little bit retarded, too.



CUP ANEMOMETER.

Nor is the human predicter without error, and the verifications of his predictions are by no means exact. To be right in forecasts four times in five is of great public interest, and makes the forecasts far more valuable than might be thought, and this is easy for the practiced predicter. Good ones are right nine times in ten, or even ninety-five times in a hundred. More than this it is unreasonable to expect from anything depending on human endeavor; and, if in other pursuits an equal freedom from fallacy were obtained, all society would go better. The sick would get well and the criminal be punished more frequently than they now are.

The real trouble in predicting lies in the fact that there are two different kinds of predictions from the standpoint of the public, but only one from that of the forecaster himself. There are for the former commonplace, every-day predictions, and there are critical predictions of immense importance to him. Error in the first is to the public of no particular importance, while error at critical points is very injurious to all sorts of people; but errors are all the same to the forecaster, being scientific, and science tolerates no avoidable error in any degree. Fortunately the predicter is less liable to err in critical forecasts than in common ones, because the data are then more pronounced. But even so he is subject to limitations of information and therefore of judgment. On the contrary it makes no difference to the public of Florida in ordinary cases whether it is to be a few degrees colder there, or a few degrees warmer, or whether it is to be a little more or less breezy or whether the breeze will come from the northeast or south. But it makes a great deal of difference when a blizzard seeks out this semi-tropical State and forces the temperatures down below the freezing point. In this case the Floridan public must know both how severe the freeze will be and how far south it will reach. But no predicter can tell exactly how far the freeze will go south, though each orchardist requires that precise knowledge beforehand for his own safety. So it happens that on occasion errors of a predicter count heavily and cause virulent criticism, even though he is doing as well as he has ever done, and as well as anybody could do. There is no help for it until meteorology becomes a perfected

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science; but, though probably the oldest of all the sisterhood of sciences, it was the latest to develop, and in the stage of development reached it is yet juvenile, if not even infantile. Curiously enough, the weather service is most satisfactory in its predictions of floods, and for this it gets no credit in the great centers of population except in New Orleans. It handles the floods on the Mississippi River in a masterly manner, and no planter on the lower river need be without abundantly timely warning to put his levees in order, for the flood-wave down the father of waters is, as compared with electricity, deliberate in its progress down stream.

During the floods of March and April, 1903, forecasts were telegraphed four days in advance of the crest to Cairo and twenty-eight days in advance to New Orleans, so that thousands of men were put to work at once strengthening the levees and removing portable stock to places of safety, while armed forces patroled the levees to guard them against breaking or cutting. These forecasts were verified by the actual stages reached to a remarkable degree, in a majority of cases being correct to an inch in forty or more feet.

There is also a local quality to the percentage of verification, that is, to the reliabilty of the predictions. The Pacific coast in on the weather side of the continent, and there are no observers in touch to the westward of it. Hence prediction is there more precarious. Fortunately the weather as far north as Cape Mendocino is very regular and not subject to cataclysmic changes. Above the mouth of the Columbia, however, the weather gets tempestuous at times, and grows more so northward though critical predictions are needed there if anywhere, being on a lee shore. Observers are sent to seaward as far as possible, to Astoria and the Olympic Peninsula for instance; and observations are freely used from Vancouver island, and from British Columbia elsewhere. All these help out, though not sufficiently. Somewhat the same is true along the coast of the Gulf of Mexico; and, though the situation is now more favorable since the establishment of stations over the West Indies, the Texan coast has no off-shore observations yet and is dangerously unprovided for. On the other hand, the Atlantic coast is on the leeward side and has everything in its favor, particularly in the northern States. And the inland cities also have a westing of observers and observatories so that they can be satisfactorily predicted for. In fact, Chicago and New York are as favorably situated for successful prediction as any two great cities in the world, and far more favorably than other great centers except in China, the location of which is curiously parallel with that of the United States in this respect, though it has yet no meteorological service. The favorable situation of two such places as Chicago and New York is good fortune for forecasters, official or otherwise; and indeed all the great commercial centers of the United States are favorably situated, except New Orleans and San Francisco; and in these cities critical predictions are very rarely called out by the phenomena of the atmosphere. Their diurnal and seasonal progress in weather is very uniform, and rarely, if ever, interrupted by cataclysmic events.

Chicago owes much of its weather to the lake beside it. The traveling whirls are such that they draw the wind in from over the lake, in some degree, but the influence of this enormous body of cool, fresh water is less intense over Chicago than over St. Joseph, its rival on the east shore. The tulip tree comes north on the east side to St. Joseph or farther, but in the longitude of Chicago it does not reach the lake shore at all, but stops in the Wabash basin. And the same is true of some other Kentucky trees and shrubs, and of some smaller herbaceous plants. At the same time Chicago frequently has its weather modified by the lake, as may be seen by comparing its climate with that of Des Moines. The lake cuts off the extremes of heat and cold in very many cases. Sometimes, too, in hot weather the cooler lake air steals in unnoticed, cooling the surface of the street first, then rising higher until all is cooled, and this rising flood of coolness and comfort is so gentle in its movement that only delicate instruments can detect it in its progressive change. It has been noticed occasionally that, in such weather, a cool breath from the lake may be gently ventilating the streets and lower stories, while the upper stories of the skyscrapers still have the hot dry breezes from the more heated, drier West.

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THE WORLD'S EVENTS.

(From June 15 to July 15, 1903.)

UNITED STATES.

June 16.—At the summer convocation of the University of Chicago President Harper announced gifts to the University, during the preceding three months, aggregating $621,155, making the donations of the past school year 1902-3 the total of $2,330,094. Other universities favored with large benefactions since Jan. 1, 1903, are Yale ($336,000), University of Pennsylvania ($455,000), Harvard ($607,705), and Columbia ($630,350), while the total of gifts to all American colleges and universities amounts to about $17,000,000.

June 17.—Ten thousand employees of the George A. Fuller Construction Company were locked out by order of the company, thus making the lockout in the New York building trades complete. While not joining the Employers' Association in membership, the Fuller company took this sympathetic action on the same grounds as those maintained by members of the association. The 150,000 laboring men who are idle because they are members of building trades' unions have been served with the ultimatum of the combined contracting constructors that they will remain idle as long as the individual unions refuse to sign the plan or agreement of arbitration and conciliation proposed by the Employers' Association....The presence of over twenty widows of men assassinated in the Hargis-Cockrell feud of Kentucky made a tragic setting to the trial of Jett and White for the murder of J. B. Marcum in Jackson, Ky.

June 18.—The Republican Voters' League filed articles of incorporation at Springfield, Ill. The first ward organization has been formed in Chicago under presidency of Francis W. Parker, who says: "We want clean men nominated who can secure the support of the people." The purpose is to supersede the machine politician and thus win Chicago for republicanism.

June 19.—Secretary Root issued an order assigning Major General S. B. M. Young as chief of staff, with Major General Henry C. Corbin and Brigadier General William H. Carter as the other general staff officers. Brigadier General Tasker H. Bliss is to become president of the war college. The order will take effect August 15. It was stated by Secretary Root that upon the retirement of General Young next January, Major General Adna R. Chaffee would become chief of staff. Both Generals Young and Chaffee will be made lieutenant generals....General F. V. Greene, commissioner of police for New York, gave noteworthy testimony to the probity of policemen in a speech before the Order of Acorns. "I want to say from my experience that the average policeman is not crooked. He has more temptations thrown in his way than any man in another walk of life. He can make a month's salary in a minute by simply turning his head. The great majority of the force resist this temptation and do their duty."

June 20.—H. F. Greene of Duluth, Minn., has been appointed by President Roosevelt to succeed James R. Garfield on the Civil Service Commission....George P. Sullivan, the plumber mayor of Derby, Conn., denounces walking delegates and high-salaried officials as unnecessary to labor unions, and tending to foment trouble between master and workman....The Cunard line withdrew from the North Atlantic conference of steamship lines, which includes the International Mercantile Marine Company formed by J. P. Morgan.

June 21.—The strike in the cotton mills of Lowell, Mass., involving 17,000 operatives, was settled.

June 22.—The Chicago City Council passed the Mavor ordinance which excludes saloons and beer gardens from Washington Park frontage and the vicinity of such frontage. This ends a struggle begun in 1895.

June 24.—Mayor Carter H. Harrison of Chicago declares about that city: "There have been improvements all around, morally as well as physically, and I must say that they are due in the largest measure to the press of Chicago. ....Rape and murder by a negro in Wilmington, Del., excite lynching and race war.... President A. T. Hadley of Yale University in his annual report deplores the formation of influential groups of students who live outside the college buildings surrounded by luxury. He proposes to build more cheap and substantial dormitories in order to make the college life of the ordinary student, who has neither money nor influence behind him, big enough to be the really important factor in the university, and to react against the disease spots outside. (This low morality is prevalent in such societies throughout the great universities of the land. Yale is simply the first to make a frank protest against them. Editor.)....Rockefeller-Gould interests came into control of the Colorado Fuel and Iron Company....The strike of the street railway employees at Dubuque, Iowa, was settled, their union being recognized. ....The Iowa Democrats in State convention repudiated the Kansas City platform.

June 25.—President Roosevelt decided to forward to the Russian government the protest of American Jews against the Kishinev massacre. ....Another building trades strike, involving thousands of men, begun in New York City.... Statistics for 1902 show that Chicago, which has always been a healthy city, has come to be the healthiest large city in the world, with the possible exception of Stockholm. The death rate of Chicago for 1902 was only 14.53 per thousand.

June 26.—It has become an open secret in Washington that Count Cassini, the Russian ambassador, as a typical Russian diplomat, resourceful in explanations and statements that are neither based upon actualities nor consistent one with another, has completely lost the confidence of American officials.

June 29.—An exploring party, headed by Ferd W. Peck and Franklin H. Head of Chicago, starts for the far North to penetrate and

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develop a large region in northeastern Siberia. The concession granted by the Czar allows the American investors to build railways and telegraphs in the Peninsula of Kamchatka and the Tchoukotsh Peninsula.

June 30.—Mr. Henry E. Weaver, a Chicago coal dealer, does not leave for a two months' tour in Europe without distributing 500 five-dollar gold pieces as good-by tokens among his employees....An explosion of gas in Hanna Mine No. 1 at Hanna, Wyo., killed some 235 miners.

July 1.—A joint committee representing the Congregational, Methodist, Protestant, and United Brethren churches, in session at Pittsburgh, adopted recommendations for the union of the three bodies....Mr. Marshall Field of Chicago declares that Americans have reached a climax to their prosperity, and are exposed to danger from the unreasonable attitude of union labor, from the uncertainty of the crops, and from the lack of confidence in some new industrial combinations....The ninth department of the U. S. Government, called the Department of Commerce and Labor, began work under Mr. G. B. Cortelyou as secretary. The Bureau of Corporations is under the management of Mr. J. R. Garfield.

July 4.—A cablegram from Mr. C. H. Mackay, president of the Pacific Commercial Cable Co., at New York, to President Roosevelt, at Oyster Bay, N. Y., sent *via* the new Pacific cable, circled the globe in 9½ minutes....The number injured on the Fourth in the United States was 3,665, the fatalities from lockjaw being 138.

July 5.—Cloudburst causes dam at Oakford Park, Pa., to yield, and drowns many persons, living mostly in Jeannette, Pa....Owing to the continued ill health of Mr. C. M. Schwab, president of the U. S. Steel Corporation, Mr. W. E. Corey has been appointed to assist him.

July 6.—A party of 2,000 men force the jail at Evansville, Ind., in an attempt to lynch the negro murderer of a city patrolman.

July 7.—An armed mob charged the militia on guard over the jail at Evansville, Ind., with the result that 9 rioters were killed and 20 severely wounded; four militiamen and two deputy sheriffs were slightly wounded.

July 8.—Every club in Chicago that sells liquor was warned that, in accordance with the recent decision of the Supreme Court, it must secure a license or close.

MEXICO.

June 21.—General Diaz was again chosen by the Liberal party as candidate for the presidency of the Republic during the coming term. Mexico has greatly prospered under his administration the past twenty years.

June 24.—The phenomenal richness of the Palmillo mine, which was discovered about four years ago by Pedro Alvarado, a Mexican peon, is attracting attention. He still owns the Palmillo, which is believed to be the richest mine in the world.

EUROPE.

June 15.—Police and Cossacks charged 5,000 Jewish workmen participating in a socialistic parade in Lodz, Russian Poland, killing 10 and wounding 100....Prince Peter Karageorgevitch unanimously elected King of Servia by the Senate and Skuptchina in joint session at Belgrade.

DR. JOSEPH LAPPONI (SEATED), SPECIAL PHYSICIAN TO POPE LEO XIII., AND (STANDING) THE CARVER AT THE PAPAL TABLE.

June 16.—Socialists gained fifteen seats in the elections for the German Reichstag, the total vote being now about 2,500,000, which shows a gain of 400,000 since 1898, despite the efforts of Emperor William to crush it.

June 17.—An approving telegram from the Russian Czar to the newly elected King Peter of Servia precludes possibility of an internal uprising against the provisional government there.

June 19.—First anniversary of the Pilgrims' Club, London, was celebrated by notable Englishmen and Americans at a banquet in Prince's Restaurant. Sir George White, the defender of Ladysmith, declared that the world was divided into two races, Anglo-Saxons and foreigners. George Wyndham, chief secretary for Ireland, aroused applause by expression of his heartfelt desire that, under the new Irish policy of the British Government, Ireland might become a new link between England and the United States. Senator Depew toasted Mr. Wyndham as "guest of the evening."

June 20.—Herbert Vaughan, cardinal and archbishop of Westminster, who was head of the Roman Catholic Church in England, died at the age of 72....The store of a prominent picture dealer on the Rue Vaugirard, Paris, was raided by police on complaint of other dealers and found to contain over a hundred clever forgeries signed Corot, Diaz, Daubigny, etc.

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The dealer claimed that his customers were mere tourists not particular about genuineness. ....The German Government has begun a campaign against magnetic healers and other medical quacks, estimated at 100,000, who have received no professional training.

June 23.—The ministers of Great Britain, France, Holland, and Turkey left Belgrade in order to avoid official recognition of King Peter's entrance. Other ministers planned to attend in frock coats instead of uniforms....A Russian edict prohibits the sale in Finland of guns, ammunition, and explosives except under the most severe restrictions. The edict is a long step towards complete disarmament of the recently annexed Finland....The Ziegler Polar Expedition sailed from Trondhjem, Norway, on the *America* for Franz Josef Land....The French Chamber of Deputies passed a bill preventing a secularized member of any congregation from teaching in a commune where he had taught as member of a congregation, before the expiration of three years. This move was necessary to defeat the practice of two-thirds of the unauthorized schools where the teachers had simply doffed their ecclesiastical garb, in order to evade the law.

June 27.—"In Dahomey" enjoys exceptional success in London since its presentation before the royal children and their aristocratic friends in Buckingham Palace. King Edward commented on it: "To me the great attraction of this negro musical comedy is that the performers play with such zest. They seem to take as much delight in it as the children themselves."

June 29.—Jews were admitted to 101 additional towns in Russia.

June 30.—Opening of the Hungarian Diet marked by rioting against the premier....Admiral Cotton of the American fleet, which spent a week at Kiel, Germany, receiving a visit from the Emperor William, spoke of the Emperor's "more than kindly and hearty treatment of us as representatives of the United States. In character he reminds me strongly of President Roosevelt."

July 1.—The Czar of Russia has sanctioned the formation of a new police force to maintain order and assure security in the rural districts of forty-six provinces of European Russia. The sum of $5,250,000 has been appropriated to cover the cost of this body of men. ....Lord Strathcona, high commissioner for Canada, while presiding at a banquet in London in honor of Dominion Day, declared that in a short time Canada alone would provide every pound of breadstuffs required in Great Britain.

July 3.—The Municipal Council of Paris rejected all propositions to secure concessions for the supply of gas in that city, notably that submitted by the French agents of an American capitalist, Mr. A. N. Brady. The council then decided on a municipal monopoly of gas, the city to manufacture gas on its own account and reap the whole profits on its sale to consumers.

July 7.—The American squadron recently visiting at Kiel, Germany, namely, the battleship *Kearsarge*, the cruisers *Chicago* and *San Francisco*, and the gunboat *Machias*, under Rear-Admiral Cotton, was cordially received in Portsmouth harbor, England, where no foreign warship, whether bent on peace or war, ever showed its flag before....A British fleet consisting of the battleship *Ariadne* and two cruisers under Vice-Admiral Sir A. L. Douglas arrived at Bar Harbor, Me., and were welcomed by Admiral Sands of the U. S. *Texas* and Adjutant General Farnham and staff representing Governor Hill, as requested by Secretary Hay.

July 9.—President Loubet of France was received with enthusiasm by Londoners on his visit to King Edward. He is the first president of the third French Republic to visit London. The climax of his visit was the state ball given at Buckingham Palace, where King Edward formally received Admiral Cotton and other officers of the American fleet.

July 13.—The Prince of Wales was entertained at breakfast on board the American flagship *Kearsarge*.

ASIA.

June 17.—Mail advices reach Victoria, B. C., that early in May a body of Russian engineer troops began surveying in the eastern part of Tibet, much to the alarm of the people. Through her Kalmuck sovereignty Russia wields a decisive influence at the court of the Llama.

June 23.—Prince Ching of China has acceded to the demands of Russia as to Manchuria. Only the United States now blocks the way to Russia's sovereignty there by demanding that American consulates be established at Mukden and Takusan. This will be done, if at all, by virtue of a treaty with China, to which State the consuls will be accredited, thus maintaining at least a fiction of Chinese sovereignty which may prove of vast value in the future.

June 27.—News comes that the Russians are strengthening their military force in Korea, and that Russian troops have made their appearance in Tibet. The "bear that walks like a man" is encroaching all along the Asiatic line.

June 30.—The Tientsin newspapers comment on the significance of the gathering of American, British, and Japanese fleets in the northern part of the Gulf of Pechili.

July 8.—Russian officials in China, Manchuria, and Korea hold a conference at Port Arthur, to discuss (as is supposed) Russian war plans in the Far East. According to the *Novikai*, published in Port Arthur, Russia has notified China to exclude foreigners from Manchuria, and Russia promises to open the ports six years hence.

AFRICA.

June 27.—A dispatch from Jibutel in Abyssinia states that the Mullah had overwhelmed several British posts, killing 35 of the 40 officers.

June 30.—British War Office received news from Colonel Rochfort, one of the British officers serving with the Abyssinian forces in Somaliland, that on May 31 the Abyssinians surprised the Mullah's forces near Jeyd and killed 10,000 spearmen.

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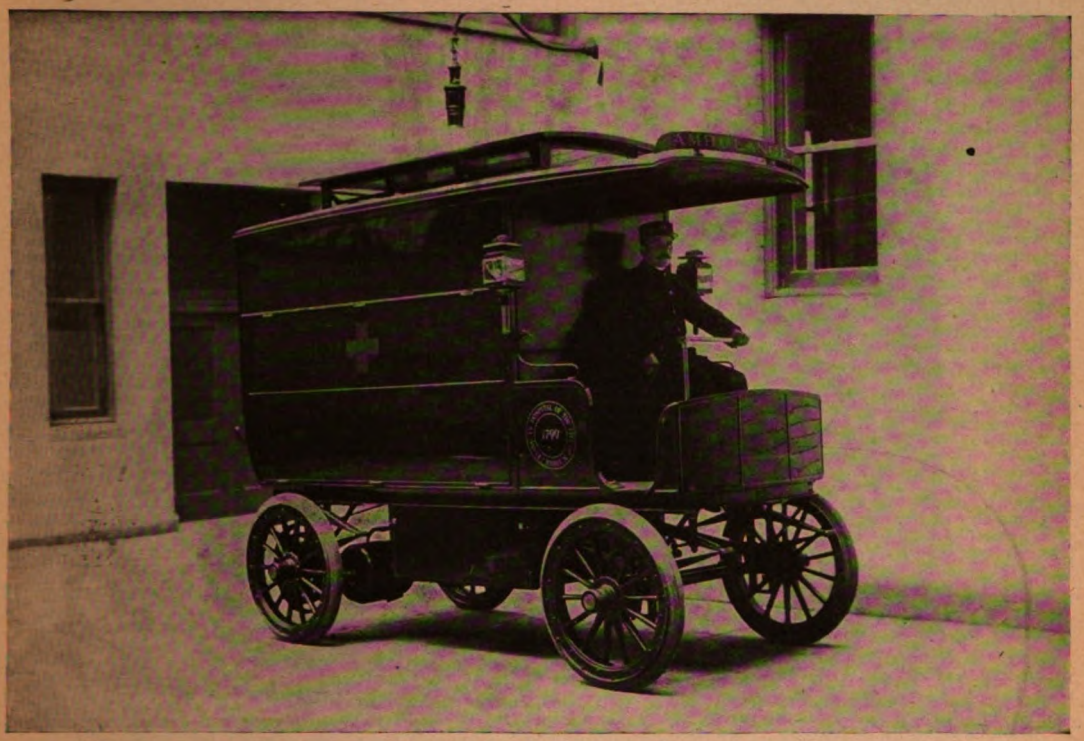
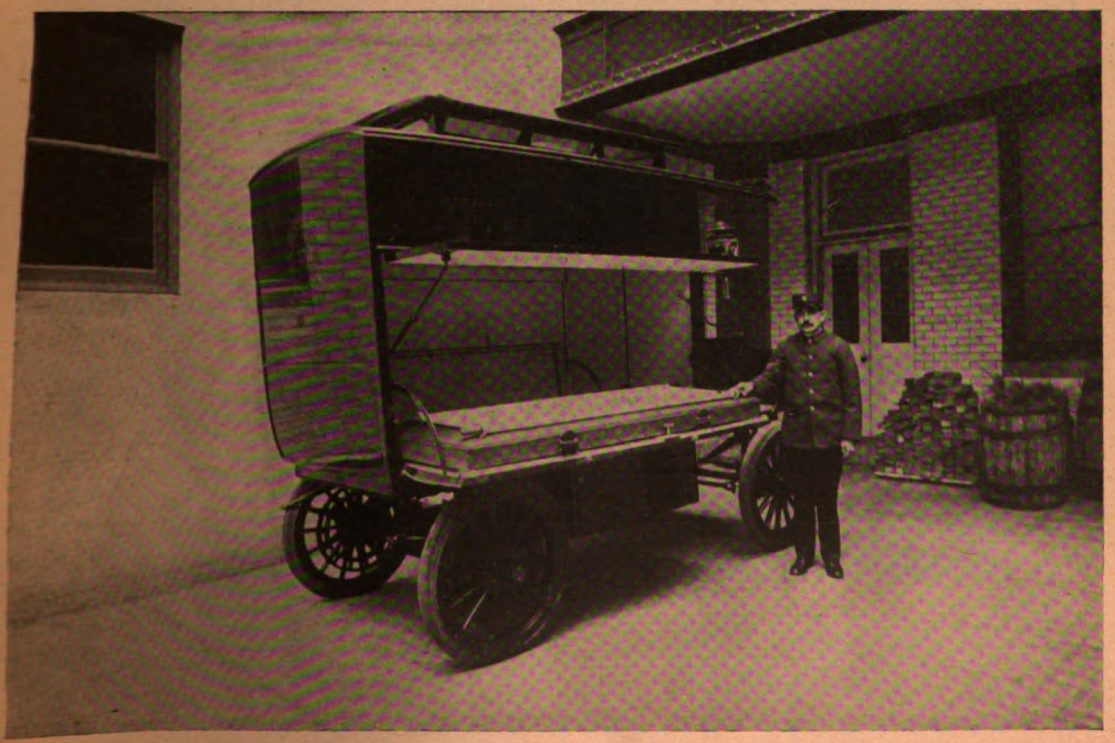


A NEW TYPE OF AN AUTOMOBILE AMBULANCE.
Used at the new Lying-In Hospital, New York.



THE AMBULANCE OPEN.
(From photographs taken for THE WORLD TO-DAY by N. Lazarnick.)

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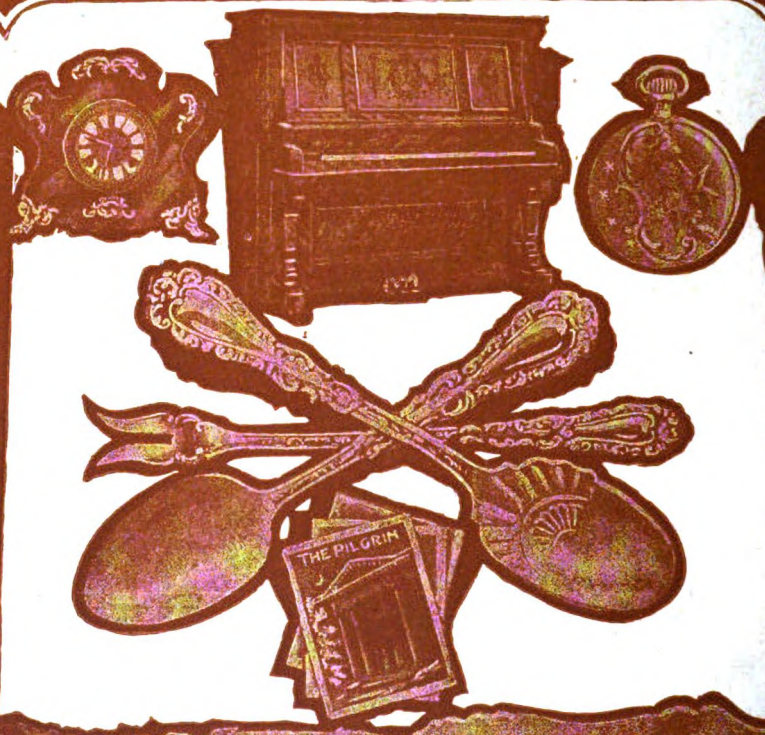

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THE WORLD TO-DAY

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The Capitol. Park Street Church.

TREMONT STREET FROM THE COLONIAL BUILDING, BOSTON.

(See "Boston," page 1143.)

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Trinity Church. Boston Art Gallery.

COPLEY SQUARE, BOSTON, MASS.

(See "Boston," page 1143.)

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LAUNCHING OF THE TURKISH CRUISER "MEDJIDIE" AT CRAMP'S SHIPYARDS, JULY 25.
A novel feature of this launching is that the warship took the water with masts and fighting top in place. This is the first cruiser built in this country for the Sultan.

SAILOR BALL PLAYERS AT THE LEAGUE ISLAND NAVY YARDS, SHOWING THEIR IMPROVISED GRANDSTAND.

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KING PETER I. OF SERVIA REVIEWING HIS ARMY FOR THE FIRST TIME.
King Peter has already threatened to resign on account of discord in the army.

THE BRIDGE OF COUNTRY BOATS OVER THE GANGES AT HARDWAR.
Constructed for the use of pilgrims who visit Hardwar from all parts of India.

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POPE PIUS X.

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The World To-Day

VOLUME V. SEPTEMBER, 1903. NUMBER 3.

EVENTS OF THE MONTH.

BY CHARLES H. DENNIS.

What Is Prosperity?

Successful progress in business or in any gainful enterprise constitutes prosperity, according to the lexicographers. Such progress, however, should be based upon a solid foundation of values given and values received in order to constitute true prosperity. The proprietor of a gambling house may be prosperous, but he bestows no substantial benefit upon his customers. At best his prosperity indicates no more than that other men have money to risk which they may have gained in legitimate callings. In some degree it may measure the money getting that is going forward in the community where he operates. Far more truly do the operations in Wall street measure the degree of prosperity which is enjoyed by the nation at large. While there is an abundance of desperate gambling on the New York Stock Exchange, the legitimate functions of that great institution are of vast importance to the business enterprises of the country. Even the gambling there is based mainly upon the best information obtainable regarding those enterprises. Yet Wall street is full of deceit and false seeming. During recent years it has engaged in building a fools' paradise for the delectation of such as were willing to abide within that enclosure. The nation's great prosperity was made to seem absolutely boundless. Magicians who created scores of millions of dollars' worth of securities out of the unfathomable void lying beyond the domain of sound finance marketed them, or as many of them as possible, at extraordinary prices. Having capitalized their imaginations as far as the credulity of the public could be made to coöperate in that dazzling feat, they were not always fortunate enough to find themselves relieved of the burdens which they had assumed with the expectation of profiting largely at other people's expense. Public confidence lagged upon the difficult slope of unreasonable inflation. Distress in Wall street has been the result. Speculation outran prosperity in such a ridiculous manner that the recent painful slump from the gambling level to the level of investment buying brought about a tremendous shrinkage in values. If the declines, which have been in progress for almost a year and which late in July became so acute as to cause sensational failures of prominent brokers, have resulted in restoring stocks to their true values, the result should be beneficial to the country at large. (See "The Fall in Securities," page 1215.)

The Public and Speculation.

James R. Keene, long an important factor in the advance of stocks, who is understood to have lost heavily by the recent failure of a firm of brokers in which he was interested, is quoted as saying that the great decline in prices mainly was due to "the absolute unwillingness of the public for some time to buy securities." A general fright had resulted, he declared, from

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JAMES R. KEENE.

the disastrous collapse of three or four recently organized trusts, it being a matter of common knowledge that many such concerns were greatly overcapitalized. In short, certain financiers controlling great enterprises have forfeited the confidence of the people and some of them have been reaping the whirlwind. Even the "magic of a great name" when used in connection with trust shares has lost its potency in a considerable degree. Inflated stocks, the public has discovered, are made to sell and the financiers who bring them into existence pocket huge profits from the transaction, when they can get them, without troubling themselves particularly about the ultimate fate of the investors who provide those profits. It is unhappily true that financial houses that launch huge corporations are too often concerned only in making sure of their own successful emergence from the venture, taking no thought of their moral responsibility for bringing into existence a monster calculated to devour the substance of incautious investors.

Responsibility of the Banks.

Addressing a convention of Illinois and Iowa bankers at Davenport on July 29, Governor Cummins of Iowa said: "I believe that the bankers of the United States are largely to blame for the menace which has now written some signs in the industrial sky. I must remind you that the last six years have witnessed the most wonderful overcapitalization that the world has ever seen and ask you what has been your share in it. Why have bankers been permitted to use their deposits to bring into existence these inflated corporations? You have aided in erecting an edifice the fall of which will wreck not only those in it, but thousands of those that are near it." This is a merited rebuke. Furthermore, the readiness with which some bankers make loans based upon inflated values of speculative stocks, thereby feeding the gambling fever as well as imperiling their own existence, is not to their credit. Because such evils are countenanced by men of power and prominence who ought to be in better business the necessity for caution and intelligent discrimination on the part of the public in making investments is readily apparent.

A Basis for Stock Values.

In the opinion of Governor Cummins as expressed to the convention of bankers at Davenport, the national government should protect the people from the menace of inflated stocks. Abundant difficulties surround this proposed field of legislation. It may be supposed, however, that Commissioner Garfield and the new Bureau of Corporations will in time throw some light upon the matter. Meanwhile it is desirable that all men should come to recognize the gravity of the offense of uttering inflated securities under conditions and by representations that smack of false pretenses. It is to be supposed that the only effective protection from the flood of bad bargains of every sort that are continually offered to the public is good hard sense such as is commonly possessed by persons who thrive. The federal government can scarcely hope to prevent its citizens from making foolish horse trades or from buying worthless stocks. A healthful sentiment in financial circles which would condemn dishonest stock inflation ought to serve as a powerful deterrent as well as a protection against panics and loss. The obligation to keep one's skirts clean rests upon great financiers as well as upon more humble citizens. Intrinsic value equal to the face value of securities may arise largely from good will, good management and earning power in many instances, but those desirable attributes must really be present and not merely dreamed

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of by promoters seeking extravagant gains. Since financiers needed a bitter lesson from the investing public no one need regret that Wall street has suffered severely of late from the withdrawal of public confidence because of exposures as to shocking methods employed in some instances in issuing inflated stocks of industrial concerns. Iowa's progressive governor asserts that the national government should see to it that stocks "are founded upon values reasonably fair and enduring." It is a great pity that the financial world tolerates the issuance of stocks not so founded. The necessary reform, however, should be worked out by the financiers themselves.

Condition of the Country.

While the prices of stocks were tumbling in Wall street the reports of the country's manufactures and trade were almost uniformly favorable. Crops were in fair condition. The earnings of the railways during July showed heavy increases as compared with those of the corresponding month last year. Labor was fully employed except where strikes had caused it to remain idle voluntarily. In the textile industries the abnormal price of raw cotton had worked confusion, that injurious condition having done far more harm to the business interests of the country than did the collapse of prices in Wall street. The export trade of the nation was excellent. In short, there were indications on every hand of a complete disregard for the convulsions which were shaking holders of speculative stocks. The country has grown too big and the basis of its prosperity is too broad for it to stop and shudder at the woes of speculators who had inflated the values of their holdings far beyond the bounds of reason. Still, this very record of high prosperity, when compared with the present market prices of the stocks of many of the huge industrial combines launched within recent years, must bring serious thoughts to the minds of their holders. Nearly all the active securities of this sort have declined since they were listed for trading purposes. If such results follow the operations of the trusts during a time of intense business activity when the demand for their products at good prices is heavy what can be expected when reverses shall come in the wake of scanty harvests? The shrinkage in prices of stocks actively traded in on the New York Stock Exchange since the decline began from the high prices of a year ago now amounts to a total greater than twice the national debt. It may be supposed that nearly or quite all this loss represents the lopping off of fictitious values. Money for investment purposes is abundant and when any stock reaches a legitimate level it immediately appeals to the prudent investor and is bought and put away. It is only in times of financial distress and business uncertainty that the bears can hammer stocks down below their true value. Since the panic of ten years ago the wealth of the nation has grown immensely and the supply of money has increased very greatly. In 1893 the total coin and other money in the country was $1,739,000,000. On July 1 of the present year the money in the country had reached the enormous total of $2,688,000,000. Farm products, manufactures, and other forms of wealth have increased enormously during the same period.

Peril of "Tight Money."

It may be supposed that the preparations of the banks to meet the heavy demands for money which come every fall from the business interests of the country had much to do with the recent fall of prices in Wall street. If money for speculative purposes is hard to get the volume of speculation necessarily must decline. Experience has taught that the vast commercial transactions that follow the maturing of the crops strain the resources of the banks to the utmost. The volume of loans, therefore, must be greatly curtailed preparatory to meeting the insistent demand by depositors for their money which they wish to use at this period of intense business activity. The old grievance that a large proportion of all the money of the country is locked up in the United States treasury and cannot be obtained to carry on the business of the people is causing the usual distress of mind among the financiers. The defeat of the Aldrich bill last spring by Democratic senators who thus retaliated upon their Republican associates for their opposition to the statehood bill leaves Secretary Shaw in the same position he occupied last year regarding the locked-up surplus. The defeated measure,

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CHARLES N. FOWLER.
Chairman of the House Committee on banking and currency who is advocating asset currency.

which had the hearty approval of Eastern financiers, though many Western bankers regarded it with disfavor, authorized the secretary of the treasury to deposit public funds, including customs receipts, in national banks, accepting as collateral either government bonds, state bonds or municipal or railway bonds of certain prescribed issues. Upon these deposits the banks were required to pay interest at the rate of not less than 1½ per cent. It is now supposed that a measure similar to this bill will be brought forward for passage early in the next regular session of Congress. The suggestion that it may be passed at the special session to be convened November 9 seems wholly unreasonable, unless some unexpected financial disturbance shall shake the country in the intervening time. President Roosevelt is believed to favor the passage of the Aldrich bill or some measure like it. Conferences held by him at Oyster Bay late in July with Senator Lodge, Congressman Cannon, who will be the speaker of the House, and other influential men, were understood to be directed toward the solution of problems relating to financial legislation. It is well known that the Senate committee on finance, of which Senator Aldrich is chairman, has been engaged during the present recess in framing a financial bill.

The Speaker and the House.

In connection with this question of financial legislation is likely to be disclosed early in the work of the Fifty-eighth Congress the attitude to be taken by Mr. Cannon on the subject of controlling the actions of the body over which he is to preside as speaker. He has frankly made it known that he does not think further currency legislation is necessary at this time. Mr. Cannon is himself a banker as well as a lawyer and his knowledge of financial matters gained in his own business and in Washington during his long service there leads him to believe that the legitimate needs of the nation in the matter of money are already well cared for. He holds that the government's annual task of pulling Eastern speculators out of the pit which they have dug for themselves leads to greater recklessness. Wall street should be made to accept the responsibility for its own acts. So he is regarded with suspicion by those interests that desire a law from Congress bestowing benefits upon the banks in the shape of convenient loans from the national treasury and preparing the way for increased bank note issues. In a recent interview he said: "It seems to me that so far as the currency is concerned the country is in very good condition at this time. In the last year the increase in the currency has in round numbers amounted to more than $126,000,000, of which $57,000,000 has been the increase in national bank circulation. No country ever had a better currency than we now have, and we have more of it than ever before." In view of the dictatorship exercised over the House by Speakers Reed and Henderson, it is conceded that Mr. Cannon as speaker very likely can defeat any financial legislation that he wishes to defeat merely by continuing the policy of his predecessors. Yet Mr. Cannon is quoted as saying on this subject recently: "Congress legislates touching all questions by a constitutional majority. No man has the power to prevent the majority from working its will. Anyone attempting the exercise of such power would

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ELIHU ROOT.

Secretary Root is a member of the Alaska Boundary Commission and is now in Europe. He is expected to resign soon.

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write himself down worse than a knave." No one knows better than does Mr. Cannon that such power was exercised on various occasions by Speakers Reed and Henderson. It is asserted, however, that he is ambitious to restore to the House its old freedom and to rule it not despotically but according to the best traditions of the high office which he is to hold. If he shall accomplish this successfully he will merit the country's admiration and gratitude.

Congressman Fowler's Plans.

Even if Mr. Cannon puts no obstacles in the way of financial legislation by the House, however, the fate of such a bill as Senator Aldrich and his associates of the Senate committee on finance may be expected to submit to Congress, will be somewhat dubious. Congressman Fowler of New Jersey, chairman of the House committee on banking and currency, and the other members of that committee who retain their seats in the new Congress are committed to the asset currency idea. Addresses delivered by Mr. Fowler recently before assemblages of Illinois, Iowa, and Wisconsin bankers in favor of asset currency seem to have been received with considerable approval. It is Mr. Fowler's opinion that bank notes issued under proper safeguards against a bank's assets could be made to relieve a money stringency promptly and effectually without lending themselves to harmful inflation or promoting speculation, since "currency asset bank notes would go back quickly to the banks that issued them." It may be supposed that the acceptance of such note issues by the country will come, if at all, only in the face of powerful and determined opposition on the part of conservative interests. Unless there shall come a pinch of extreme severity because of money scarcity and high interest rates within the next few months little is to be expected in the way of legislation affecting the country's banking interests during the impending sessions of Congress. The views of Senator Aldrich, Congressman Fowler, Mr. Cannon, and their respective followings in Washington and throughout the country are likely to neutralize one another. Some measure permitting the loaning of government money to banks on adequate security and at a low rate of interest ought to pass, since the hopelessness of securing the adoption of a fiscal policy that will prevent the accumulation of large sums in the national treasury through needless taxation is painfully apparent. It is asserted that influential holders of government bonds are opposed to the Aldrich plan of extending to state, municipal, and railway securities the ability to stand as collateral for loans of government money, since this would tend to injure the present high market value of government bonds.

Fate of the Kishinev Petition.

Mr. Leo N. Levi and the other members of the B'nai B'rith who had in hand the task of securing signatures to the petition to the Czar called forth by the Kishinev massacre and urging him to lead a world-wide movement on behalf of religious liberty and tolerance, were notified by Secretary Hay on July 17 that the Russian government had declined to receive the document. Since there had been no possibility at any time that there would be any other outcome to the matter, no one was surprised by the announcement. However, the text of the petition had been cabled to the American *chargé* at St. Petersburg, Mr. Riddle, by whom it was presented to the Russian foreign minister in order that the latter might say whether or not it would be received if officially presented. His reply that in view of the newspaper publications in regard to the matter the petition, regardless of its contents, could not be received under any circumstances, discloses that the agitation of the subject has had its full effect upon the ministers of the Czar. In the words of Mr. Levi, the movement enabled the American people and their government to make an enduring record of their views on the Kishinev horror and "brought the emphatic expression of those views home not only to the people of Russia, but to the Russian Emperor and his ministers." Doubtless this has done good, just as a frank and earnest protest against any shocking evil in the United States, if made by representative citizens of an influential foreign nation, through the medium of their government, would tend to bring sober reflection to us. It seems decidedly unjust, however, to say, as has been said by some Americans, that the vigorous prosecution of the Kishinev

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TYPES OF RUSSIAN JEWS, WHO ARE COMING TO AMERICA IN LARGE NUMBERS.

assassins and other anti-Semitic rioters which has been instituted by the Russian authorities was due in large measure to the American protest. There is no good reason to doubt that an earnest effort to inflict adequate punishment upon the offenders was begun by the imperial authorities directly after the massacre. More than 800 arrests have been made, a large number of indictments for manslaughter have been returned and hundreds of prosecutions for minor offenses have been begun. Those accused of murdering Jews are to be placed on trial at Tiraspol during the present month. This is in entire accord with the representations made to the American government by Count Cassini soon after the Kishinev outrages. There is small doubt that the Russian government is to stand by these early representations owing to the influence of American agitation.

Open Ports in Manchuria. Secretary Hay's negotiations with the Chinese government to secure the opening of ports in Manchuria to American trade were reported to be practically completed at the beginning of last month. Mukden, an important interior city from which start the caravans for remoter Chinese districts and for Siberia, and Ta-Tung-Kao, at the mouth of the Yalu river, were understood to be the ports selected. Russia's consent to the terms of the treaty so far as it relates to Manchurian trade had been secured some time earlier through negotiations carried on by Secretary Hay and Ambassador Cassini. It was understood that Japan and Great Britain have profited by the steady pressure exercised by the American secretary of state upon the Russian government relative to the granting of commercial privileges in Manchuria.

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While the final evacuation of that province by Russian troops is set for October 8, according to the agreement of last year, it is very clear that Manchuria will remain Russian territory to all intents and purposes. An avalanche of conflicting reports has come out of the far East to confuse the situation there, but glimmering dimly through them appears the strong probability that an understanding is being arrived at which will prove fairly satisfactory to all interests. Japan's aspirations relative to Korea are likely to be gratified, while the strength of the Russian

GENERAL KOUROPATKIN.
Minister of War, Russia.

position at Port Arthur will tend to induce the Anglo-Japanese alliance to take reasonably full account of Russia's permanent interests in Manchuria. That the peaceful settlement which is under way has for its basis the results obtained by Secretary Hay's wise diplomacy seems practically certain. Japan also has acted with firmness and dignity. Marquis Ito and the other elder statesmen have smothered partisanship and allied themselves in a patriotic manner with the government, the difficulties in Baron Katsura's cabinet have been smoothed over and the united sentiment of the people has placed Japan in a position where it can insist on a definite settlement of the Manchurian enigma The investigations made by General Kouropatkin, Russian minister of war, at Port Arthur and the series of conferences held by him in that city with Ambassador Lessar, Admiral Alexieff and other high officials, may be supposed to have taken in all the problems of defense presented on that coast. In spite of the reiterated charges of duplicity against Russia emanating from British sources, that nation evidently intends to keep its promises relative to the "open door."

Chinese Reformers Punished.

Efforts to suppress criticisms of the Manchu government by enlightened Chinese and to punish the critics created consternation among the reformers in China at the beginning of last month. As an example to the others, the Dowager Empress caused an influential native journalist, Shen Chien, who had advocated a revolution, to be flogged to death in Pekin by the official executioners. Seven Chinese editors in Shanghai were placed under arrest on charges of sedition and the execution of some or all of them was regarded as inevitable until the British authorities interfered in their behalf and saved their lives. That the movement among the Chinese of the southern provinces against the Manchu rulers is formidable has been known for a long time. Their desire is to expel the foreign dynasty and place a Chinese emperor on the throne, at the same time securing the inauguration of important reforms. That large quantities of arms have been brought into the country to be used in an uprising against the Manchu rulers and that the terrible exactions of the mandarins whose duty it is to collect the taxes have prepared the people for rebellion are among the facts which have to be recognized in considering the future of the empire. There seems to be but a faint hope that the present government at Peking will move in the direction of necessary reforms. The Emperor tried to put in force such reforms in the fall of 1898, but the Empress Dowager hastened to seize the reins of government from his hands and his progressive adviser, Kang Yu Wei, had to flee for his life. The ferment in the southern provinces is

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seemingly in the direction of better things, but the singular lack of cohesiveness among Chinamen and the improved condition of the Chinese army, which last year was able to put down formidable uprisings, make the tenure of the Manchu government reasonably secure. Such leading men of progressive tendencies as Prince Ching, Yuan Shih Kai and Prince Su give promise that the Chinese official mind cannot stand out forever against the teachings of experience. When the grim old Dowager Empress and her chosen advisers shall have disappeared from the scene it is to be hoped that the intelligent Chinese will obtain without a war such a government as shall permit the masses of the people to be something more than victims of extortionate tax gatherers and dupes of ignorant fanatics. A conference held August 7 by the Empress Dowager with all the Manchu princes is said to have had for its subject the best means of combating the existing conspiracies against the dynasty.

Another Merger Decision.

By a decision rendered at St. Paul August 1 Judge Lochren of the United States District Court challenged the correctness of the famous decision given against the Northern Securities Company last April by the four judges of the United States Circuit Court of Appeals of the eighth judicial district. The latter decision related to the alleged violation of the Sherman act. Judge Lochren was called upon to consider the validity of the railway merger in the light of the Minnesota law forbidding the consolidation of parallel railway lines. However, the problem was the same in each case. Judge Thayer and his associates in the higher court asserted that the control of a majority of the stock of the Great Northern and the Northern Pacific roads by the Northern Securities Company "destroyed every motive for competition between two roads which were natural competitors for business." Therefore, the judges concluded "according to the familiar rule that every one is presumed to intend what are the necessary consequences of his own acts, when done willfully and deliberately," that to stifle competition was one of the purposes of the merger. Judge Lochren takes a strikingly different view. "I am

WILLIAM LOCHREN.
Judge United States District Court, Minnesota.

compelled," he says, "to reject the doctrine that any person can be held to have committed or to be purposing and about to commit a highly penal offense merely because it can be shown that his pecuniary interests will be thereby advanced and that he has the power either directly by himself or indirectly through persuasion or coercion of his agents to compass the commission of the offense." While this view appeals to one's sense of fairness it remains to be seen whether the United States Supreme Court will adopt it or whether it will hold to the view of Judges Thayer, Caldwell, Sanborn and Vandervanter. The whole future course of trust regulation is likely to be affected by the final disposition of this important question. If the Thayer decision shall stand the dissolution of obnoxious combines could be brought about almost automatically. Under Judge Lochren's interpretation of the law a considerable increase of the powers of the Interstate Commerce Commission doubtless would be desirable in order that, though thinking no evil, the law still might be prepared to bring to book those offenders who

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F. P. SARGENT.
U. S. Commissioner of Immigration.

should take advantage of the opportunities afforded by convenient mergers to put an end to competition.

Features of a Year's Immigration. Official figures of the number of immigrants arriving in the United States during the fiscal year ended June 30 are not so large as the earlier estimates, though they are quite extraordinary. The total immigration was 857,046, an increase of 208,303 over the immigration of the preceding twelve months. This total is larger by 68,054 than the immigration of 1882, which came nearest to that of last year. Mome immigrants came from Italy than from any other country, the number being 230,622, or 52,247 more than in 1902. Austria-Hungary furnished 206,-011, an increase of 34,022. From Russia and Finland came 136,093, or 28,746 more than last year. Thus, two-thirds of all the immigrants came from those three countries, a very large proportion of them being quite unfit for assimilation with the American people. Furthermore, considerably more than half the large increase in immigration as compared with that of the preceding year is due to the swarms coming from the countries named. Small increases are also found in the immigration from Germany, Sweden, Norway, England and Ireland, but the total from those five countries is less by many thousands than from Austria-Hungary alone. During the year 8,769 immigrants were debarred under the law and 547 were returned after having been permitted to land, they having become public charges within one year. With the beginning of the new fiscal year the law relating to immigration passed by the last Congress went into effect. It increases the head tax on immigrants to $2 and excludes, along with those formerly prohibited from landing, beggars, anarchists, epileptics and persons who have been insane within five years or who have been insane two or more times. It also has the valuable provision that immigrants who become public charges within two years of their arrival may be deported. Additional restrictions are placed by it upon the steamship companies carrying immigrants. It is hoped that the law will prove efficacious in cutting down the number of undesirable aliens taking up residence in the United States. The rapid increase in the tide of immigrants and the outlook for further increases constitute a problem of grave importance to the nation. Investigations by Commissioner Sargent show that during the first six months of the present year 580 immigrants newly arrived in New York became public charges. We cannot afford to add imported paupers at this rapid rate to our abundant home grown supply.

Pius X and His Task. When Joachim Pecci was elected Pope by the conclave of cardinals in 1878, those princes of the church felt the need of a firm yet diplomatic pontiff to withstand the aggressions of the statesmen of new Italy. The same traits of character which had led to his selection as camerlingo, in which office his alert mind was expected to supplement the failing powers of Pius IX, brought the anxious cardinals to the conclusion that here was the man to uphold the cause of the church against the Italian government, which had deprived it

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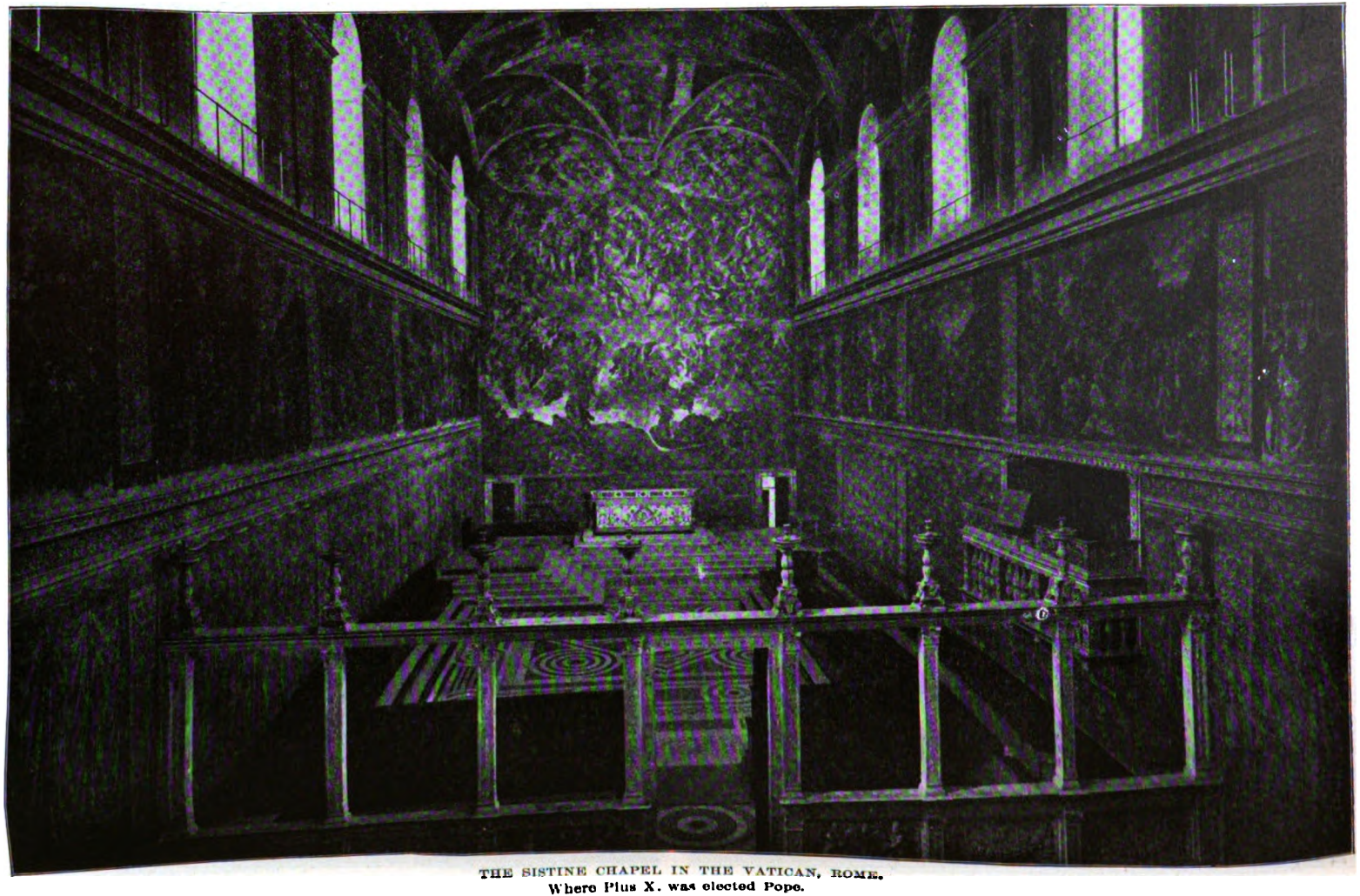

THE SISTINE CHAPEL IN THE VATICAN, ROME.
Where Pius X. was elected Pope.

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POPE LEO XIII. LYING IN STATE.

of its temporal power. It was a critical time, since there had been serious doubts in the minds of the cardinals whether Crispi, the Italian minister of the interior, would even permit them to meet in Rome and choose a successor to the Pope from whom the city had been wrested. Even before the death of Pius therefore the wisdom and strength of Cardinal Pecci were in some respects the mainstay of the Vatican. Consequently there was no occasion for surprise when he was elected to the throne of Peter upon the third ballot. He accepted the office with tears, believing that his physical strength would not long sustain the burden and thinking that a short pontificate would be injurious to the church. Yet he outlived every other cardinal of that day but one, and the church increased mightily under his sway. Some critics say that his pontificate must be set down as a failure, since it marked not the slightest progress toward the restoration of the temporal power which his predecessor lost. Such a view of his excellent rule of a quarter of a century seems highly absurd to one who reviews the great results which have been achieved under his leadership. The world has moved far from the former idea that without temporal power the Apostolic See suffers ignominy and the Pope is a woful prisoner in the Vatican—so far, indeed, that perhaps the most liberal of the Italian cardinals, Giuseppe Sarto, patriarch of Venice, was elected last month to succeed Leo and his election was hailed with rejoicing by Catholics everywhere. If it were indeed a vital necessity to present an uncompromising front to the Italian government in regard to the church's claim to the temporal rule of the Eternal City and the lost Italian states one can scarcely see how the frankly patriotic cardinal from Venice could have received the triple crown from his fellow cardinals. Piety, strength of character, broadmindedness and freedom from factional entanglements proved ample qualifications in his case.

The Pope and the Nations.

"He who goes in a Pope will come out a cardinal," is the Roman way of saying that the unexpected happens when a conclave meets to elect a sovereign pontiff.

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That Cardinal Rampolla, to mention no others, had powerful support for the high office, and deservedly so, considering his accomplishments and his long years of prominence in the counsels of the Vatican, was conceded. Yet his very prominence and the general knowledge of his views and policies placed grave obstacles in his way. France greatly desired his election. His strong showing on the early ballots after the conclave met on August 1 is declared to have brought an objection to the choice of him from Emperor Francis Joseph of Austria, this objection being supposed to present the views of Germany and Italy as well. Despite the indignation aroused among the cardinals by this interference with the work of the princes of the church, Rampolla's support fell away, to the immediate gain of Cardinal Sarto, the favorite of the Italian party and of those generally who deferred to the wishes of the Triple Alliance. That this pious and eloquent cardinal had kept aloof from Rome, had thrown himself into no factional controversies and displayed no favoritism toward any particular religious order, was greatly in his favor, since it gave promise that the church as a whole would receive his care without bias in any direction. So he was elected Pope on the seventh ballot, which was cast on the morning of August 4. A strong, scholarly and energetic man of 68 years, which was Leo's age when he ascended the papal throne, there is reason to think that he will prove a worthy successor of that great Pope. Pius X is a product of the fine democracy of the church. He is the son of a poor man of humble rank, his relatives being engaged still in common labor. That he will come to some sort of agreement with the Italian government in regard to the lost temporal power of the church may be too much to expect; still, it is difficult to think that he will insist upon being on bad terms with the government. Presumably he will remain, as did Pius IX after 1870 and Leo XIII throughout his pontificate, shut up in the Vatican. Still, at some time or other the head of the church, one must think, will accept united Italy as a permanency. The patriotism of a great people may well prove as lasting as

THE FAMOUS LIBRARY OF THE VATICAN.

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CARDINAL OREGLIA.
Dean of the Sacred College who was head of the Roman Catholic Church from the death of Leo XIII. until the accession of Pius X.

the cherished policy of the Vatican. Will it be Pius X or some later Pope who will become reconciled to the present order in Rome and discard the dream of temporal power for the church?

King Edward in Ireland. King Edward's growing fame as a tactful and kindly monarch was materially enhanced by his recent visit to Ireland. Landing at Kingstown on July 21 he had the good judgment to say in his reply to the address of welcome extended to him by the corporation that he shared in the sadness of the people over the news of the Pope's death, which had occurred only the day before. From that time until he departed from Irish soil at Queenstown on August 1, his words and actions were well calculated to increase the regard that the Irish have long felt for him. Years before the death of his royal mother they had become impressed with his sympathy for their aspirations in the direction of better government and their desire to cherish their racial characteristics. The demonstration of his friendship and liberal views which he has given them by his important share in inaugurating the present policy of conciliation from which has blossomed the Irish Land bill would bring tokens of respect and gratitude from a far less warmhearted and impulsive people than the Irish. In Dublin, which has for its lord mayor that sturdy Nationalist, Timothy Harrington, the reception extended to the king and queen was extremely hearty. Three years ago, on the occasion of Queen Victoria's last visit, the back streets of the city resounded with cheers for the Boers and prodigious "booings" for all representatives of British authority. Through those same streets walked and rode King Edward this summer, visiting the poor homes of workingmen and receiving cheers from the peo-

CARDINAL MERRY DEL VAL.
Secretary of the Conclave, whose office it was to offer the papal white cap to Pius X. After accepting it, the newly made Pope dropped on to the head of Merry del Val his now discarded cardinal's red hat. This is regarded, in accord with common precedent, as a token that Merry del Val will shortly be raised to the cardinalate.

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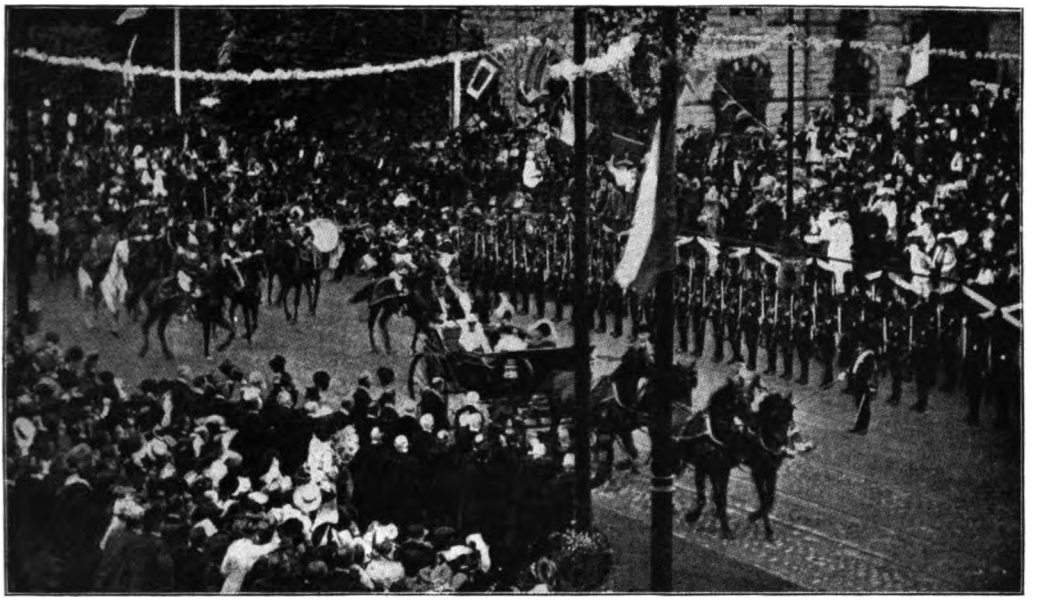

THE ARRIVAL OF KING EDWARD AND QUEEN ALEXANDRA IN DUBLIN.

ple. At the Protestant end of the island, in Belfast and Londonderry—the latter city never before having seen a British sovereign—the reception to the royal party was scarcely more enthusiastic than that extended by Dublin and Cork. Naturally the English were delighted with the success of the royal journey, but they had the sense to realize that the good manners of the Irish as displayed toward the amiable king and his consort afforded not the slightest proof that the people had receded from their intense longing to manage their own affairs in their own way. On departing from Ireland King Edward issued an address to the Irish people expressing his appreciation of their good will, assuring them once more of his warm regard and admiration and of his hope that a brighter day is dawning for them. Truly it would seem that at last this brighter day is coming, and that so the dark "blot on the scutcheon" of Great Britain will be wiped out; for this personal geniality of the British king is backed by the pending political reform in the British Parliament.

Success of the Land Bill.

On the day that King Edward landed in Ireland the Irish Land bill passed its third reading in the House of Commons. In Mr. Wyndham's absence, he being in attendance on the king, the bill was in charge of Mr. Balfour, who praised it and also the tact and wisdom of the secretary for Ireland. Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman was scarcely less complimentary to Mr. Wyndham. He also paid a tribute to the Irish members for their moderation. The third reading was carried by a vote of 317 to 20. In the House of Lords the bill passed its first reading two days later. It passed its second reading on August 3 and its third reading on August 11. Opposition to the bill as it came to them developed promptly among the peers, and some minor amendments were carried against the government. It is asserted that the king sent word to the malcontent landlords of the upper house that he held the passage of the bill to be an act of patriotic duty. Under the competent management of the Duke of Devonshire and warmly supported by the Liberal peers, with a few exceptions, the measure was permitted to go rapidly to its final passage. Indeed, the entire history of the bill from its first appearance in the lower house justified the jest of Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman that "St. Stephen's Green had been transported to Westminster" and that an Irish Parliament was sitting in London. Surely this excellent piece of legislation,

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with its gift of $60,000,000 by the government, deserves to prove highly successful when worked out as a method of extinguishing Irish landlordism. It is generally recognized that its success or failure is merely a question of administration. Since the government embarked a few months ago on the right course in Irish matters it has had the good fortune to select excellent men to carry out its will; one may hope with a fair degree of confidence therefore that the men to administer the new law will be selected with sound

EARL DUDLEY.
Lord-Lieutenant of Ireland.

judgment. Mr. Wyndham and the Earl of Dudley, the lord lieutenant of Ireland, in their respective places have been very successful in their dealings with the Irish people. No one should be deceived into thinking that the Irish desire home rule any less ardently than before since the land problem seems in a fair way to be settled. The national spirit glows brighter than ever among them. The use of the Irish language is being revived in a perfectly wonderful way in a large number of communities. Parish priests employ it in their sermons, urging their hearers to speak no other, and schools and societies are being founded to spread the long neglected Celtic speech.

Mr. Chamberlain's Fight.

It has been reported that the British cabinet will meet during the present month to consider the future course of the government in regard to the proposals put forward by Mr. Chamberlain looking to the advocacy of a preferential tariff as a basis for imperial unity. Whether or not the policy will be taken up in earnest and whether if it is taken up the unswerving free traders of the cabinet will continue at their posts are questions for which the average Briton is earnestly seeking an answer. It is asserted by the opponents of Mr. Chamberlain's policy that he is losing ground before the people, but the correctness of this conclusion is by no means certain. While the friends of free trade have rallied powerful interests against protection there has been no appreciable strengthening of the Liberal party and the audacity of Mr. Chamberlain and his supporters has carried them to the attack with a mighty show of confidence. It is not improbable that they expect defeat at the start. British opinion seems to have settled upon the necessity for a general election early next spring, even if the present cabinet shall conclude to put aside Mr. Chamberlain's plans. In any event an appeal to the country must precede any action in Parliament looking to a change of the nation's fiscal policy. The young Conservatives are restless because of the premier's attitude of passivity while the secretary for the colonies is pressing forward his doctrine by a system of correspondence and a distribution of leaflets conducted by his stanch supporters in Birmingham. Winston Churchill as spokesman for many supporters of the government has protested that "while Mr. Balfour silences his followers in the House of Commons Mr. Chamberlain is busy with their constituencies." The position in which the Conservative party now finds itself is almost intolerable. General relief will be felt when the situation shall be cleared up at the close of the present session by a thrashing over of the cabinet's views and a definite declaration by the premier as to what he intends to do about

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Mr. Chamberlain and his fiscal and imperialistic policies. It is deemed significant by the free traders that in the protection literature sent out by Mr. Chamberlain's friends there has been a shifting of ground from the original plan to tax food and use the money for old age pensions. "Food is already taxed," now say these documents, "and if a duty is put on corn a duty yielding the same amount can be taken off some other sort of food."

Physical Decay in England.

As was pointed out in these columns at the beginning of Mr. Chamberlain's agitation in favor of a preferential tariff, the question of the Englishman's physique and his ability to bear the burdens of national defense has an important bearing upon the colonial secretary's new policy. The race is deteriorating and it needs the assistance of the strong arms and bounding pulses in the colonies to hold it in the forefront of progress. Proof of this has been brought forward recently from a number of sources. A parliamentary paper containing a report by the director-general of the army medical service on the physical condition of men examined at the recruiting stations furnishes startling evidence of race decadence. Between 1893 and 1902, it appears, 680,000 men and youths were subjected to medical examination by the army authorities. Of these more than 34 per cent., or 235,000, were rejected as unfit for army service. This takes account only of those who were passed by the recruiting officers, it being reasonably certain that they had rejected the worst of the applicants without troubling the doctors to make examinations. Inquirers are agreed that the sad condition of many thousands of the children of the English poor has much to do with the growing weakness of the race. Sir William Anson lately declared in the House of Commons, on the authority of a school inspector, that there were 60,000 children in the London schools who were "physically inferior, and who cannot get the benefit of the schools." Such children, said Sir William, are the offspring of early marriages and unhealthy parents; they are overworked; they are neglected; they are underfed. The Duke of Wellington has contributed to the discussion statistics indicating that the English classes from which come the army recruits, are now composed of smaller and weaker individuals than the men who fought in the wars against Napoleon. Then there is the annual report of the lunacy commissioners to show that the ratio of insane persons in England as compared with the entire population has increased from 1 to 536 in 1859 to 1 to 293 in 1902. Furthermore, the rate of increase has grown in a startling manner from year to year, being highest during the last twelve months. In all these melancholy figures stand forth conspicuously the ravages of drink. What is the cure? Supporters of Mr. Chamberlain say it is to revive English wheat growing by putting a tax on American wheat and thus take the surplus population of the towns back to the healthful life of the country. English and Canadian wheat, it is also argued by ingenious followers of Chamberlain, is more nutritious than American wheat, which, they intimate, is sapping the strength of Britons.

A SNAPSHOT OF SIR THOMAS LIPTON AND ADJUTANT-GENERAL CORBIN TAKEN ON THE YACHT "ERIN."

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THE MEMORIAL TO SIR ARTHUR SULLIVAN, THE COMPOSER, UNVEILED IN LONDON, JULY 10.

English and French Amenities. Following King Edward's visit to France last spring and the return visit of President Loubet to England has come a most interesting display of good feeling by eminent representatives of the French and English people. Baron d'Estournelles de Constant, a wise statesman and former diplomat, recently organized in the French Chamber of Deputies from among all the parties there a so-called arbitration group. Three hundred men who favor the policy of international arbitration as a substitute for war now follow the leadership of the baron in his efforts to promote peace and secure the benefits which should properly accompany a good understanding with one's neighbors. At the invitation of the Committee on Commerce of the British House of Commons, Baron d'Estournelles and one hundred other French statesmen of the arbitration group visited England late in July. There they discussed with Mr. Balfour and other representatives of the British government the possibilities of arbitration as applied to the two nations. Inspired by that visit, on August 5 Baron d'Estournelles sent to M. Delcassé, the French foreign minister, a letter urging that the government enter into negotiations with Great Britain looking to the adoption of a reasonable arbitration treaty similar to that now existing between Great Britain and the United States; also a reduction of the annual naval expenses of the two nations and a settlement of outstanding differences which have exhausted the resources of diplomacy. The baron was in a position, because of his recent conferences with British statesmen, to assure M. Delcassé that the moment was favorable to bring about these results. Indeed, the suggestion for a reduction of the naval forces had come from leading members of the British ministry. Here indeed is a most useful field for the activities of a progressive statesman. To insure peace and an agreement as to reduced armaments is to lift a crushing weight from the people of the countries thus agreeably aroused from their dreams of war. Manifestly the enlightened leader of the French arbitration group is doing a noble work for civilization. It is a pleasure to know that he is to come to the United States next year, where he expects to arrange a visit to Europe of congressmen and other representatives of the American government in the interests of international peace.

Affairs in the Transvaal. A manifesto by General Louis Botha against the British policy in South Africa created a great stir in England late in July. That Secretary Chamberlain's tour of the conquered territory was an abject failure so far as bringing benefit to the country is concerned was asserted by this leader of Boer opinion. Lord Milner was arraigned as a despot and a blunderer. The great volume of British anger aroused by this severe indictment has led to threats of banishment for the government's harsh critic. In the House of Commons on July 30 Mr. Chamberlain, replying to Liberal attacks on Lord Milner's administration, declared that good progress was being made in developing the country and reconciling the Boers to the new order of things. Wherever the work of pacification was interfered with by irreconcilables the government, he said, would not hesitate to cure that evil by deporting the mischief-makers. It is conceded even by

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many of Lord Milner's admirers that he has made serious mistakes in his conduct of affairs in the Transvaal. The wishes of the mine owners of the Rand have had great weight with him. Some complain, indeed, that the millionaires have their way about everything, to the great harm of the poor men of the colony. The mine owners have labored long and earnestly for permission to import Chinese or Indian coolies as laborers in the mines. An extended inquiry by a government labor commission has been carried on with the purpose of discovering what is best to be done in this matter and out of its work is expected to come a recommendation that the Asiatics be admitted. To offset the attitude of the sad and grumbling Boers, the government expects to keep in the country 25,000 British soldiers, many of them re-enlisted men with wives and families. These will be encouraged to become permanent residents, thus adding to the British element which it is thought important to increase as rapidly as possible. Ruled rigidly as a crown colony, the officials of the government being appointed from England and the disaffected element being kept in subjection by a large permanent garrison, the Transvaal sees a distressing failure of the policy of conciliation which was expected to bring about the speedy adoption of representative government. It is difficult to think that good management by the authorities could have fallen so far short of actual conciliation.

Ladronism in the Philippines. While peace nominally prevails now in all parts of the Philippines the country is infested with many bands of robbers who wish to be regarded as revolutionists. Their continual attacks upon communities which have submitted to American rule are encouraged by the malcontents in Manila and elsewhere because they disturb the peace of the country and vex the American officials. The hope is still cherished by many natives that their independence will be granted soon as a result of fatigue and disgust on the part of the foreign conquerors. Even some native officials who profit by their connection with the existing government are said to encourage ladronism when they can do so in secrecy, since they realize that the present state of things will be continued by the Americans at least as long as the islands are in a disturbed condition and self-government by the natives remains out of the question. The insular government is combating this widespread unrest by trying to restore prosperous conditions to the people. The death by rinderpest of almost all the carabao, which are the plow animals of the native farmers, has been followed by the importation of others from India that are immune from the disease. Commissioner Worcester now reports that rinderpest has been stamped out in the islands. These and other measures intended to aid the people, together with vigorous efforts to punish the armed robbers by sending against them the native scouts and rural constabulary, are relied upon to efface the disorderly element. However, it is reported that armed bands of robbers make raids even in the environs of Manila from time to time. Late in July a considerable force of native rebels were defeated in a battle in the streets of Albay, the capital of the island of Albay. The American troops in the islands are not used in these operations. Those troops are to be further reduced in number soon. Three infantry and three cavalry regiments, in all about 5,000 troops, will be recalled. General Leonard S. Wood, recently promoted to the rank of major general, has gone to the Philippines, and will organize a civil government among the Moros of Mindanao. General Wade has succeeded General Davis in command in the islands. Some excitement was caused in London recently by the news that the Americans had taken possession of the Cagayan-Sulu group of islands off the coast of Borneo, which were thought to be British. Since these islands, however, turned out to have been Spanish until ceded to the United States some months ago by special treaty on payment of $100,000 by this country, the excitement quickly subsided.

Changes in the Army. Lieutenant General Miles was retired from the army on August 8, he having reached the age of compulsory retirement upon that day. Though vigorous and capable, apparently, of serving many years longer, he had to go, under the law which has been in operation for years.

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GENERAL S. B. M. YOUNG.
Now the head of the army of the United States.

He was succeeded in rank and position as general commanding the army by General S. M. B. Young, an officer of high ability and long service. On August 15, however, the new law establishing a general staff went into effect. This is the measure which General Miles opposed strongly when it was brought before Congress at the suggestion of Secretary Root. Henceforth there will be no general in command of the army, though the chief of staff, which position is now filled by General Young, is practically in command. General Young will retire for age next January and will be succeeded by General Chaffee, a soldier of conspicuous merit. Two years later General Chaffee will retire. A question which causes heart burnings among veteran officers relates to General Chaffee's probable successor. Major General Wood, who at the outbreak of the Spanish-American war held the rank of assistant surgeon in the army, is now a major general, by virtue of his services in Cuba and of the confidence and regard felt for him by Presidents McKinley and Roosevelt, with both of whom he was intimately associated. If he shall become lieutenant general and chief of staff after General Chaffee, to which office his rank would render him eligible, army officers of long service would feel that they had a monumental grievance. General Wood is not yet 43 years old. If he were to succeed to the highest position in the army two years hence he might expect to retain it for almost twenty years, thus reducing the chances for that position of all the other officers of any considerable rank to practically nothing. Yet General Wood, notwithstanding his lack of military training, has shown himself to be a soldier and administrator of rare worth. It may be expected that whatever duties he is called on to perform will be ably performed. The departure from the army of General Miles, who as a soldier in high command in the Civil War and as an Indian fighter on the western plains, rendered service of great value to the country, was preceded by the promotion and retirement of thirty-three colonels with records in the Civil War. Their retirement was under a law passed by the last Congress. Each served as a brigadier general for only one day and then went on the retired list with that rank. Thus, in order to bestow promotion and higher pay upon veteran officers many of them were retired in advance of the operation of the age limit law. Secretary Root's probable retirement from the cabinet soon is reported, Governor General Taft of the Philippines being mentioned as his successor.

Various Naval Affairs.

After serving as Admiral Cotton's flagship during the visit of his fleet to Kiel and Portsmouth, the Kearsarge, Captain Hemphill commanding, was ordered home for a fast run from the English coast. Starting on July 17, this fine battleship arrived at Bar Harbor July 26, having steamed 2,885 nautical miles in nine days, four hours and a half, an average speed of 13.10 knots an hour. This is the fastest record ever made by a heavy battleship on so long a voyage. Yet the weather was unfavorable and serious delays were experienced on account of high seas, fogs, and proximity of icebergs. It is important to know also that the ship reached the American coast with enough

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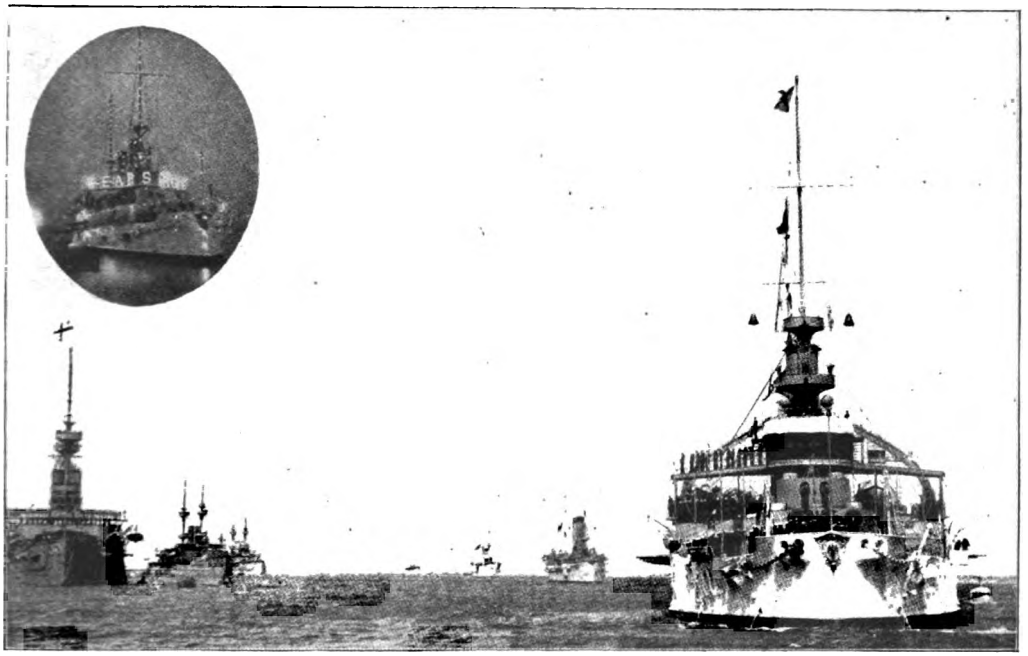
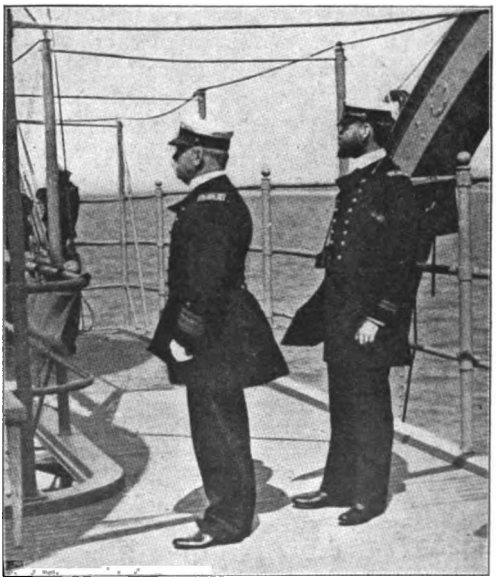


Machias. San Francisco. Chicago. Kearsage.

THE UNITED STATES SQUADRON IN EUROPEAN WATERS.
The squadron under Admiral Cotton attracted wide attention and the officers were royally entertained. The upper view shows the "Kearsage" illuminated at night.

coal in her bunkers to furnish steam at full speed for three and one-half days longer. The run was made at the end of a cruise of fifty-three days during which she steamed 8,200 miles. She had suffered no embarrassment in that time from disabled machinery. Naturally the naval department at Washington and the officers and men of the Kearsarge are proud of this record, since it demonstrates the high effectiveness of a typical American warship of the first class. Certain tests of his squadron's speed recently made by Admiral Evans, commanding the Asiatic station, indicate that the Kentucky, a sister ship of the Kearsarge, is quite as fast and enduring as the latter and that the Oregon is as good a battleship as she was when she sailed around Cape Horn at the beginning of the Spanish war of 1898. It is unfortunate that the naval board of construction was seriously divided in regard to the plans for the new 13,000-ton battleships Idaho and Mississippi, which have lately been decided upon. In the absence of Admiral Melville, who, with Admiral Bradford, insisted that high speed and ample coal carrying capacity be given to these ships, the contention of Admirals O'Neil and Bowles for heavy armor and heavy guns carried the day. A maximum of 17 knots and a coal carrying capacity of 1,750 tons is provided, the dissenting admirals urging that less



ADMIRAL COTTON.
In command of the American squadron in European waters.

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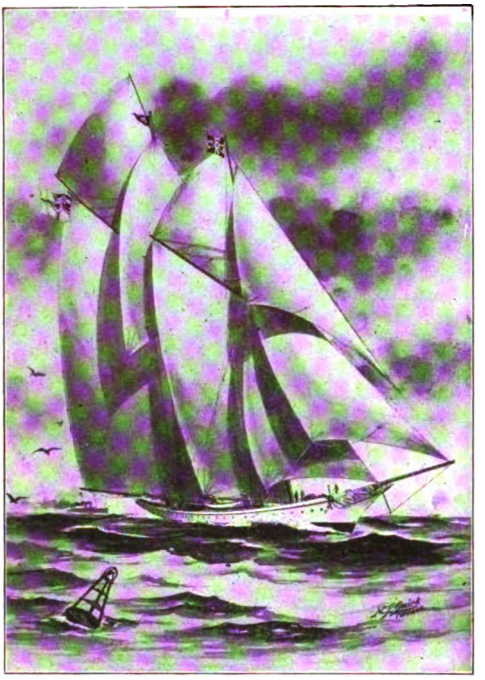

EMPEROR WILLIAM'S YACHT "METEOR."
Winner of the king's cup in the regatta at Cowes, England.

armor and gun metal be furnished so that higher speed might be supplied to make them the equals of other battleships of late construction. An interesting "war game" by the North Atlantic squadron off the Maine coast, in which an "enemy" attempted to make a landing without being captured, resulted in the defeat of the invader on August 8. Admiral Barker commanded the defending squadron and Admiral Sands the attacking vessels. During the first week of August Admiral Cotton and the officers of his squadron were hospitably entertained at Lisbon by the king and queen of Portugal.

Paying Cuban Soldiers. Before its adjournment on July 18 the Cuban Congress authorized President Palma to appoint a commission to go to Europe and the United States in search of information regarding the best manner of selling $35,000,000 in bonds with which to pay for the services of the Cubans who fought against the Spaniards. This question of payment for services in the war against Spain leading up to American intervention and the liberation of the island has been warmly discussed in Cuba ever since the treaty of Paris. General Maximo Gomez, as chairman of a commission appointed to prepare the lists of Cuban soldiers and recommend what each should be paid, recently completed his work. He asserts that about 50,000 soldiers are entitled to pay from the government. The common soldiers, according to his thinking, should be remunerated at the rate of $1 a day, officers being paid more in proportion to their services and rank. Payment for himself is placed at $20,000. To carry out these recommendations Cuba would have to provide almost twice the sum of money which it contemplates providing. Surely it cannot afford to do anything of the sort. One must regret that General Gomez, who has done so much for Cuba, has adopted a course well calculated to cause trouble for the republic by lifting the expectations of the soldiers too high. The patriotism which led these men to fight in a seemingly hopeless war for Cuba's liberty should prevent them from endeavoring to swamp the young republic with debt to satisfy their unreasonable claims. The Cuban Congress just before its adjournment appropriated $150,000 to build a national house of representatives and passed a bill for a postal treaty with the United States. The Cuban Senate approved the treaties with this nation providing for the leasing to the United States of coaling and naval stations at Bahia Honda and Guantanamo and confirming Cuba's title to the Isle of Pines.

Professor Langley's Aeroplane. Among the scientists who have seriously striven to solve the problem of flight, Professor S. P. Langley of the Smithsonian Institution is entitled to a leading place. The car hitched to a gasbag offers no attractions to these men, since such contrivances ignore the delicate and intricate questions raised by a study of the bird's wing. Soaring flight, such as that which bears aloft the buzzard, has been investigated for years by Professor Langley. His many experiments have led up to the construction of a great aeroplane sixty feet in length and propelled by a motor of 25-horse power. Fifty thousand dollars given by the national government and thousands more furnished by Professor Langley and his friends have been

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spent in perfecting this machine. Early in August experiments to test its effectiveness were begun from a houseboat on the Potomac near Widewater, Va. Since Sir Isaac Newton was led to discover the law of gravitation by the train of thought aroused on seeing an apple fall to the ground it should not be deemed impossible for Professor Langley to discover the secret of the bird's flight by seeing how the buzzard keeps from falling. Aviation is an art which man greatly desires to master, notwithstanding the weighty reasons advanced against it to Rasselas by his mentor in the Happy Valley. Clearly the mysterious combination of balancing and propulsion employed by the flying bird must be hit upon, if ever it is discovered, through experiments like those which Professor Langley has undertaken. Baskets hung to pointed balloons, such as Santos-Dumont affects, will not serve the purpose. While that ingenious Brazilian has progressed so far that he is now getting ready to establish an aerial 'bus line above Paris the fact remains that the flight of a bird, not the lifting power and dirigibility of a cigar-shaped gas-bag, contains the secret which man must master to become lord of the air.

Capture of Ciudad Bolivar.

While the United States government was at work completing arrangements for the arbitration of claims of European nations against Venezuela, particularly those of Germany, Great Britain, and Italy for preferential treatment, President Castro was engaged, late in July, in crushing the last formidable body of revolutionists that opposed his authority. Ciudad Bolivar, held by the rebels, was invested by the government forces under General Gomez, vice-president of Venezuela, but the city was not bombarded out of deference to the pleas of United States Consul Henderson and other foreign consuls. A request from General Rolando, commanding the rebels, that he be permitted to surrender his forces by formal treaty was refused by President Castro, who declined to extend any guarantees to Rolando's fellow insurgent, General Ferrara, "the author of so many tears and the cause of making so many orphans," to use the words of the president. Lieutenant Commander Culver of the United States gunboat Bancroft took active measures to rescue women, children, and foreigners from the scene of impending hostilities. After some days of investment the battle began at 5 o'clock on the morning of July 19. Two hours later the government troops effected an entrance into the city, but the fighting continued without pause throughout that day and night and until 11 o'clock on the evening of July 20. Street fighting was carried on with great ferocity, house after house and street after street being defended desperately until resistance was no longer possible. A last stand was made at the capitol and the jail. These were finally carried. Heavy loss was inflicted on both sides, the rebels being shot down by hundreds in some quarters of the city. The victory was complete for the government, General Rolando and his associate generals being captured. This, President Castro declares, disposed of the last effective resistance to his rule. One must certainly hope so, since it does not appear that Venezuela has anything to gain by these savage uprisings and the bloodshed and suffering which accompany them. No faction in that distracted country seems to be inspired by true patriotism. Their battles are mere conflicts of kites and crows, so far as the masses of the people are concerned.

Delaying the Canal Treaty.

According to the terms of the Panama canal treaty ratifications of it must be exchanged by the United States and Colombia not later than September 22. Since it takes several weeks for a communication to come by mail or messenger from Bogota to Washington, the Colombian Congress, which early last month was still granting extensions of time to the committees appointed to study the treaty, the outlook for the success of the measure was not bright. The feeling among Colombians that in the Isthmus of Panama the nation possesses a potential source of large revenue for all time induces great reluctance on the part of well meaning men in that country to accept the terms of the present treaty. The probability that amendments to it would be insisted upon by a majority of the members of the Colombian Congress disturbed the Washington officials. Owing to a

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CASSIUS M. CLAY.
Former Minister to St. Petersburg and erratic Kentuckian, who died July 22.

quarrel between the Colombian government and the cable company connecting with the land telegraph by which Bogota is reached, communication with the capital was seriously interrupted and the views of United States Minister Beaupré on the prospects of ratification were not obtainable. A curious example of the condition of affairs on the isthmus was given on the night of July 25. General Cobos, commanding the government troops in Panama, having failed to induce the governor of the province to pay the soldiers, to whom he owed nothing, but who were mutinous because they had received no money from the national government for a long time, visited the house of that official and attempted to arrest him. The governor made his escape, however. Other civil officers were arrested but were released a few hours later. The whole performance, which caused much excitement on the isthmus and in Washington for a day, turned out to have been a ridiculous whim of the military commander while in an irresponsible condition. At the time it was believed to be an overturning of the provincial government because it was friendly to the American canal treaty.

Labor Riots in Russia.

That the internal affairs of Russia are still in a desperate condition from the point of view of the industrial population over wide areas is shown by the fierce riots frequently occurring in various cities, particularly in the southern part of the empire. Early last month reports of battles between strikers and Cossacks were surprisingly frequent. These disturbances were accompanied by many fatalities, since the troops did not hesitate to fire into the throngs that tried to resist them. In Kiev, Nikolaiev, and Odessa riotous demonstrations by strikers, which were answered by volleys from troops who killed and wounded considerable numbers of persons, were reported in a single week. It is asserted that during July the many encounters of this sort occurring over a wide region resulted in at least 200 deaths and many times that number of severe injuries. Students of the situation assert that a large proportion of the workingmen of Russia have become revolutionists and that the ugly aspect of affairs comes mainly from the general desire felt by strike leaders to start a revolt which shall raise the industrial classes for concerted action through wide areas. The minister of the interior, M. Plehwe, is said to be taking advantage of the disturbed conditions in southern Russia to make many arrests of political suspects, 600 such persons having been taken into custody in Odessa recently. Those who accuse this same minister of complicity in the Kishinev massacre declare that he sought at that time to distract the attention of the revolutionists from their hatred of the government by setting them against the Jews. Whatever is the truth of this dreadful business, at least it is very certain that M. Plehwe has a grave situation to combat. Things seemingly have grown worse instead of better than they were when his predecessor, M. Sipiagin, was assassinated in April of last year. The government's policy of iron repression in a time of cruel want is not calculated to sweeten the tempers of the needy masses among whom revolutionists are at work.

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Renewed Strife in Macedonia. With the beginning of August the activity of the Bulgarian bands in Macedonia was greatly increased. Hostilities against the Turkish troops and outrages against villagers who were not friendly to the revolutionists extended over wide regions, the Macedonian committee having declared an insurrection to exist in quarters not seriously vexed before by its operations. On August 6 an engagement between four battalions of Turkish troops, supported by artillery, and about 1,700 well armed Bulgarians near Sorovitch was marked by desperate fighting. The insurgents, though greatly outnumbered, were driven from their position only after many had been killed on both sides. The town of Krushevo was captured a few days earlier, its garrison of 52 Turkish soldiers being killed. Massacres and other outrages were frequent in the province of Monastir. It was believed that the revolutionary forces were preparing to put forth their full strength by the end of last month in the hope of compelling the powers to interfere. The Turkish government in a communication to the Western nations bitterly recounts the difficulties which it has met in its efforts to inaugurate the reforms demanded by Russia and Austria. The murder by a Turkish soldier of M. Rostkovski, Russian consul at Monastir, created consternation in Constantinople and abject apologies to the Russian government. The danger that a declaration of war would be made by Turkey against Bulgaria, from which comes the main support of the insurrection, seemed considerable. That continued peace between the two nations rested largely upon the firmness and tact of Prince Ferdinand of Bulgaria was quite evident. In spite of the warnings of the powers, the intense longing of the Bulgarian population to march across the border to fight the Turks imperiled the very throne of Ferdinand, who held them in leash to the best of his ability. Some observers have prophesied that he would yet have to declare war against Turkey or abdicate. That this crisis in Balkan affairs would pass as have so many others, was, however, the opinion of government officials in London and other western capitals. Mr. Balfour said in the House of Commons on August 10: "Between the outrages deliberately planned by the revolutionists and the license of Turkish troops, the historical truth requires me to say that the balance of criminality lies rather with the revolutionists than with the Turks." This is putting the situation very mildly.

How to Prevent Lynching. After a long series of lynchings and burnings of negroes by mobs in various parts of the country it remained for Sheriff H. H. Whitlock of Danville, Ill., to show once more that mobs are mainly composed of worthless cowards and that their so-called respectability and hatred of crime is a miserable sham. On the evening of July 25 throngs of half-grown boys and street loafers—the elements mainly composing bands of lynchers—began to gather in the streets of Danville and to prepare to attack the jail where was confined a negro who was accused of having made an assault upon a white woman. Suddenly an altercation sprang up between a young white man and a passing negro. It resulted in the latter drawing a pistol and killing the white man. The police arrested the murderer and took him to the police station, but a mob soon stormed the building and the timorous officers of the law permitted it to take the prisoner and kick and shoot him to death, afterwards burning his body in the street. Then the mob rushed to the jail to secure the other negro. Sheriff Whitlock, however, failing to persuade the men to depart and finding them preparing to batter down the door with a steel rail, fired upon the leaders, wounding a number of them and putting the rest to flight. His easy victory after the pusillanimity of the police had whetted the mob's courage should be remembered by officers of the law henceforth whenever a band of ruffians, masquerading as respectable citizens, attempts to storm a jail or otherwise secure the person of a prisoner in order to kill him. Respectable citizens do not commit murder. If the courts and the sheriffs of this country will do their plain duty, lynching will soon become a very rare crime indeed. President Roosevelt on August 6 sent to Governor Durbin of Indiana a letter approving his firm attitude toward the Evansville lynchers and denouncing mob violence as anarchy, "the handmaiden and forerunner of tyranny."

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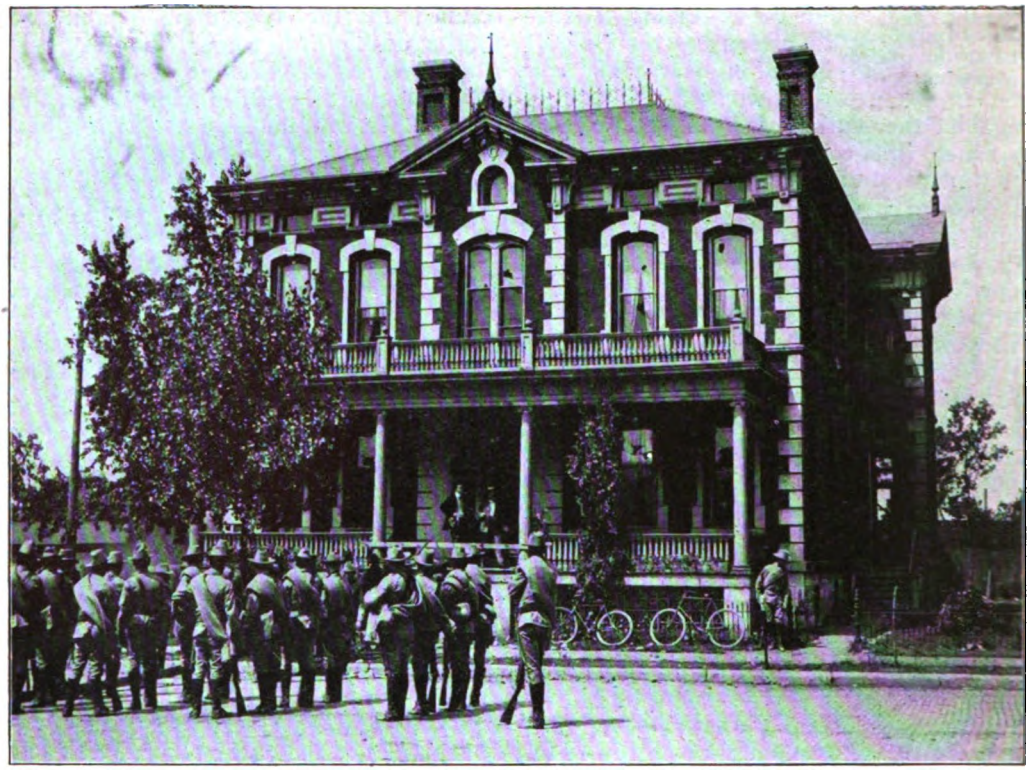

NEW JAIL AT DANVILLE, ILL.
From a photograph taken the morning after the attack by a mob. State troops on guard.

President Roosevelt's Remedy.

In regard to eliminating the only possible excuse for mob murder President Roosevelt, in his letter to Governor Durbin, makes the following wise suggestion: "It certainly ought to be possible by the proper administration of the laws to secure swift vengeance upon the criminal. The best and immediate efforts of all legislators, judges and citizens should be addressed to securing such reforms in our legal procedure as to leave no vestige of excuse for those misguided men who undertake to reap vengeance through violent methods." The president says further that the just efforts of the courts to protect the rights of men accused of terrible crimes "should under no circumstances be perverted into permitting any mere technicality to avert or delay their punishment." The law must work swiftly and surely in such cases, says President Roosevelt. In regard to the horrid results upon the whole mass of the people coming from such fiendish deeds as hanging or burning men accused of crime the president says with absolutely no exaggeration: "There are certain hideous sights which, when once seen, can never be wholly erased from the mental retina. The mere fact of having seen them implies degradation. This is a thousandfold stronger when, instead of merely seeing the deed, the man has participated in it. Whoever in any part of our country has ever taken part in lawlessly putting to death a criminal by the dreadful torture of fire must forever after have the awful spectacle of his own handiwork seared into his brain and soul. He can never be again the same man." This is a terrible fact which should be generally recognized. The rage for lynching, instead of lessening the number of criminals and suppressing the criminal instinct, increases both at an appalling rate. No lyncher can escape the moral taint which goes with committing murder. To make a nation of lawless and violent men out of this republic would be a shocking end to all our pride and patriotism. "Where we permit the law to be defied or evaded," says the pres-

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ident, "whether by rich man or poor man, by black man or white, we are by just so much weakening the bonds of our civilization and increasing the chances of its overthrow." One must hope that these wise and timely words will have the effect of helping to put down the lynching mania.

Democratic National Politics. Not a little pathos attaches to the earnest search for a Democratic candidate for president, which is still in progress, little satisfaction having been gained from the efforts made thus far by party men to solve the problem. The most interesting suggestion made of late along this line is that Judge George Gray of Delaware, chairman of President Roosevelt's anthracite commission, might do. Not only by his work on that commission but by his services in the national Senate and in Paris as one of the commissioners who negotiated the treaty of peace with Spain in 1898, Judge Gray has demonstrated his fine qualities. To think that he could carry Pennsylvania for the Democratic ticket next year is, however, very difficult, notwithstanding the strength of the miners' vote there. Certainly his nomination would be thoroughly creditable to the party. Pennsylvania democrats now expect to support ex-Governor Pattison in the nominating convention until they get ready to "go with the winner." The increasing talk of Mr. Cleveland for the head of the ticket would be far more suggestive if one could see where he might hope to get the votes of enough delegates to nominate him. So far as Mr. Bryan's influence extends—and it extends a good way in most of the western states—it will be uncompromisingly against the nomination of the former president. Mayor Tom Johnson of Cleveland may be expected to control the Ohio delegates at the convention and perhaps a few of the Pennsylvania delegates. Unless he can show good results for the party in the state election next November, however, he has little reason to expect to be seriously considered for the nomination. Mr. Gorman and Mr. Hill are so cordially disliked by western Democrats that their chances do not seem bright, though the ability of each to get the support of his own state delegation and perhaps to get its electoral vote also will have weight in a convention of perturbed delegates. Mr. Bryan continues amiably suggesting men more or less obscure whom he thinks excellent presidential timber, but whose ability to get the nomination, even with Mr. Bryan's help, may be doubted. Yet the famous Nebraskan should prove an important factor in the convention. Apparently he will have at least the veto power. To suppose that he would become reconciled to Mr. Cleveland's nomination, for example, is rather more than the average person can accomplish in view of his past and present attitude toward the ex-president. At this time it seems as if New York's choice of a candidate, tempered by Mr. Bryan's veto power, would control the nomination.

CITY HALL, DANVILLE, ILL.

Interesting Republican Campaigns. The extreme confidence of the Republicans in their ability to elect President Roosevelt next year and the disappearance of all effective opposition to his nomination has had the effect of reducing interest in political happenings in that party. Still, some very interesting State contests by the Republicans are now beginning.

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MORRIS BELKNAP.
Republican candidate for Governorship of Kentucky.

Maryland, because of Mr. Gorman's astuteness and by reason of election laws framed in the interest of the Democrats, has again become a serious problem for the Republican leaders, and is now in the throes of a political canvass on which rests the fate not only of the State ticket but of the United States senatorship held by Louis E. McComas, Republican. He is a candidate for another term in case a Republican majority shall be returned to the legislature. James Gary, formerly postmaster general, and other influential Republicans are understood to be candidates for the position also. Another border State in which active political campaigning is under way is Kentucky, where the Republicans have nominated for governor Morris Belknap of Louisville, who is contesting actively with Governor Beckham, renominated by the Democrats. Upon the results next November in these States, which, though nominally Democratic, have been carried sometimes by the Republicans in recent years, will be based to a considerable degree the conclusions of politicians as to the condition of the two great parties as they approach next year's national campaign. Among the States which have no elections next November, the condition of Republican politics in Illinois attracts particular attention owing to the active work of many members of the party in favor of a candidate who has come to be looked upon as opposing the iron rule of the so-called bosses. Charles S. Deneen, who has made an enduring reputation as State's attorney of Cook county, which includes Chicago, was brought forward by independent elements among the Republicans as a means of breaking the power of those who control the party organization. While he is meeting with much favor, the organization men have still to show what attitude they intend to take toward his candidacy. They have notified Governor Yates, it is understood, that he cannot have their support, but whether or not they will unite upon some other candidate in a determined effort to defeat the independent movement in the party remains to be seen.

"Pools" in Building Trades.

An assault by union workmen upon the foreman of a non-union shop in Chicago led recently to the death of one of the assailants, who was shot by his intended victim. This tragic result of a

CHARLES S. DENEEN.
State's Attorney, Cook County, Ill.

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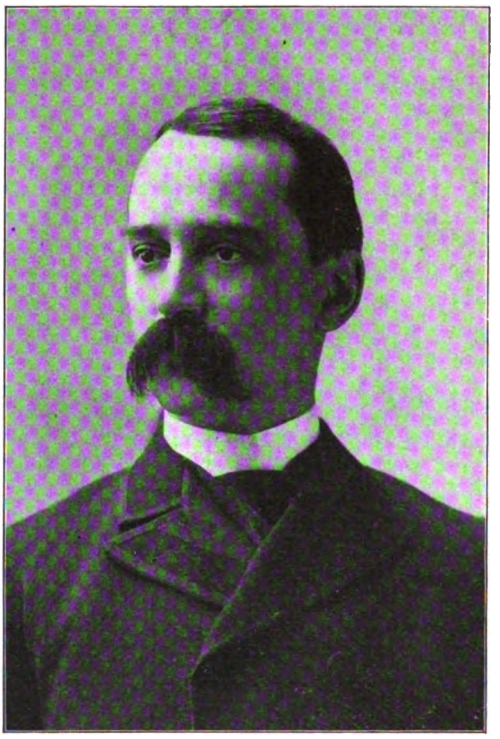
labor dispute occurred August 6, and led the employer of the man who did the shooting to make public an extraordinary story of conspiracy. Being a contractor for sheet metal work on buildings, he joined some months ago an association comprising in its membership nineteen other sheet metal contractors, who with himself controlled that sort of work in Chicago. It was their practice, he said, when a job was to be let, to compare their figures on the work and then concoct a bid providing a profit of 20 per cent., and 20 per cent. additional to be divided among the conspirators. One of their members being selected to make this bid, the others who had figured on the work put in higher bids, so that the favored member would win. After having shared the proceeds of this carefully organized conspiracy for some months this contractor, Rysdon, broke away from his confederates and began to underbid them, thus taking from the "pool" several important pieces of work. Soon he got into trouble with his workmen, who were members of the Sheet Metal Workers' Union, which had made an agreement to work for no one who was not a member of the Sheet Metal Contractors' Association. Rysdon, seeking to make his peace with his formidable antagonists, was called upon to pay $4,000 in fines by way of punishment for his actions. Rather than pay the fines he decided to continue in opposition to the other contractors and the labor union. Attacks upon his workmen on the streets, threats and other forms of labor warfare were used against him continually thereafter, these culminating in the shooting of the union sheet metal worker by his foreman. Rysdon's story and the evidence tending to support it, together with testimony as to similar "pools" among contractors in other building trades, aroused great indignation. That the present heavy cost of building operations has prevented the erection of numerous important structures that were contemplated is pointed to as proof of the great harm done to the community by collusive bidding on contracts, as well as to the persons and firms directly victimized. Furthermore, many acts of violence committed against non-union workmen were held to be inspired by agreements between labor unions and employers' associations looking to the crushing out of competition. A searching investigation is now expected.

Constructing a Labor Monopoly. It has been pointed out in these columns that an agreement by an association of employers to use no labor except such as is furnished by members of a certain trades union is likely to be accompanied by an agreement on the part of the union to permit its members to work for no person not a member of the employers'



LOUIS E. M'COMAS.
United States Senator for Maryland.

association. When matters have advanced this far it is not a very long step to the establishment of a monopoly of employment as well as of labor. It is lamentably true that in business there are many persons who put aside honesty for the sake of profits when an occasion arises that makes the desertion appear worth their while. Like the curate in the "Bab Ballads," they like to "do it on compulsion," however. To make lawlessness pay them in accordance with the risks, they make haste to cripple their honest

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competitors. When they can get union workmen to force these competitors out of business or into the conspiracy, it may be assumed that they are not squeamish as to the methods employed. Threats, boycotts, beatings of peaceful workmen—these have been denounced by the public for many years when employed by reckless labor unions. If such lawlessness shall prove to be inspired at times by rival employers in the interests of dishonest contracts and extortion, what shall be said of those employers? Doing business with the strong arm is a kind of thing that must be put down by all the forces of law and government. In the evolution of the trades union that point where it comes to be recognized as an ally by the employers' union, the two marching out together to levy tribute upon the rest of the community when dishonest men control them, has now been reached. It is the community's business to repel these freebooters' assaults and to break up the wicked alliance.

Blackmail in New York. On July 27 Lawrence Murphy, treasurer of the Stonecutters' union of New York, was convicted of embezzling a large sum of money from that organization. He had made the defense that the money in question had been obtained by blackmailing operations from various contractors of the city. The court held, however, that the source from which the money came had no effect upon the question of his guilt or innocence. During his trial various contractors testified that they had been required to pay large sums to a so-called "secret committee" of the Stonecutters' Union either to secure the settlement of a strike on work in which they were interested or to prevent strikes from being ordered. It is significant that Murphy was prosecuted by the officers of the union and not by the men who contributed the money to the union's coffers. He declared after his conviction that "there was a secret deal between the union and the bosses." While professing not to know exactly the terms of the agreement, Murphy said: "Our understanding is that the union is not to work for anybody who will not fall in line and who bids under a certain figure. Anybody who cuts under or who is out of the association would be barred." If Murphy told the truth and knew what he was talking about, his explanation would account for the complacency manifested by the contractors while paying blackmail to the "secret committee." Confederates whose services and silence have to be bought are not likely to find their employers haggling over their demands. It is to be hoped that conditions in New York and Chicago, which arouse such shocking suspicions, will be fully investigated and the truth laid bare.

Creating a National Capital. The birth of a great city anywhere in the world is of importance to all the world, though usually its future is obscure and its ultimate greatness is a matter of slow growth. The founding of a national capital, however, conveys a certainty of influence and renown that cannot be overlooked. Constantinople, St. Petersburg and Washington may be mentioned among the capitals founded as the seats of power of great nations. Now the new Commonwealth of Australia is preparing to create a political center for itself. Though it is not an independent nation it may be ranked as one commercially and in other ways. With such splendid cities as Melbourne and Sydney within its borders it is difficult for outsiders to see the necessity for building up a special city, particularly as the government buildings in Melbourne are well adapted for the uses of the Commonwealth. The same reasons that prompted the United States to pass by New York, Boston, and Philadelphia and build a capital in a country pasture seem to have prompted the statesmen of Australia to declare that its permanent capital shall be centrally placed, where it will not be especially influenced by any particular political division. The federal commission appointed to recommend sites has now made its report. It choice was limited to localities in New South Wales "distant not less than one hundred miles from Sydney." It recommends, in the order named, Tumut, Albury, and Lyndhurst. The first named has a beautiful site and climate, and lies midway between Melbourne and Sydney.

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The World in General.

In Search of Blind Fishes in Cuba.

BY

CARL H. EIGENMANN.

[Additional interest is given this article by the fact that Mr. Eigenmann has just been awarded $1,000 by the Carnegie Institute for the purpose of further investigating the blind fishes in Cuba.]

IN the caves of Cuba live two blind fishes, Lucifuga and Stygicola. They originated in the deep sea and have worked their way up the underground streams emptying beneath the surface of the ocean. They have become permanently established in the fresh water caves while their nearest relatives still live in the depth of the ocean about Cuba. These fishes bring forth living young about an inch long. The eyes, at the time of birth, are well developed, but they degenerate as the fish grows older and have a tendency to disappear entirely with old age.

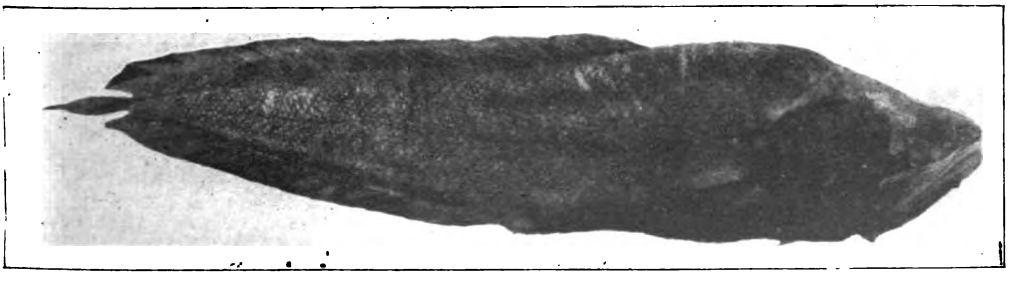
Provided for all contingencies that might arise in exploring unknown caves, I sailed from Tampa, Florida, March 2, 1902, with a letter from the war department permitting the outfit to go into Cuba duty free, another from the Treasury Department permitting my stuff to return duty free, a commission from the U. S. Fish Commission to collect fishes in the caves and streams of Western Cuba, and a letter from the Department of Agriculture saying there were no laws against importing living blind fishes to improve the native breed.

Mr. Oscar Riddle accompanied me as assistant and interpreter.

The Cuban blind fish caves had last been visited before the day of railroads, but fortunately the towns, La Guira de Melena, Alquizar, San Andres (now Cañas), from which the different caves had been reached, form a series of stations along the "Western" railroad. The caves from which blind fishes had been taken are those of Cajio, near La Guira de Melena, La Industria, halfway between Alquizar and Guanimar, the cave of Ashton, the cave of the Dragon on the cattle farm San Isidro near Las Mangas, La Concordia, a cave near the bee-house of the coffee plantation La Paz, and a well near the tavern Frias. We expected to visit all these.

In order to make sure of reaching one of the caves we decided upon Alquizar, in the middle of the cave region, as our starting point. We reached Havana on Monday at 2 p. m., and were at Alquizar on Wednesday at 8 a. m. We were able to start about noon in a volante, which is the characteristic vehicle of Cuba, for "La Industria."

Our driver had been a soldier in the



STYGICOLA, THE LARGEST BLIND FISH IN CUBAN CAVES.

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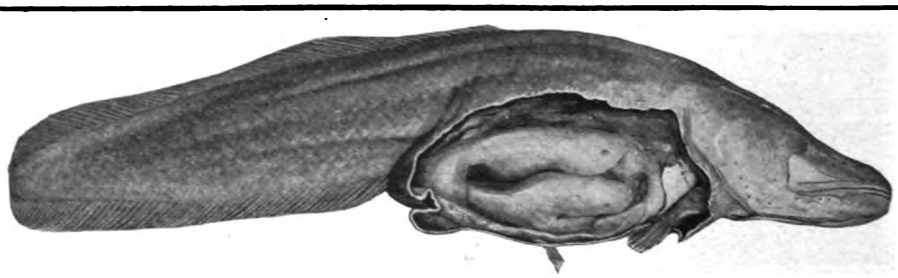
Cuban army and told us the circumstances under which the houses along our route were destroyed. It seems that the larger, better houses were all destroyed by the Cubans because they suspected that the inmates leaned toward the Spanish side, while the huts were destroyed by the Spaniards on account of a suspected leaning toward the Cuban side. Between the two all this stretch of country was laid waste.

Happy in the prospect of soon landing fishes and in the novelty of the scene about us, we did not particularly note the direction in which we were going. The Cuban roads, with very few exceptions, are too rough for a four-wheeled vehicle. The volante has but two. Our volanteman suspiciously pretended he had lost or did not know his way, asking at all the places but never apparently learning anything about La Industria, our destination. We repeatedly heard about Frias, a tavern near which fishes had been found in a well, and finally, in desperation, asked him to go to Frias, or anywhere. Our suspicion became further aroused when we heard a train whistle a short distance away. There was no sign of ravines and sinkholes that would indicate a cave country. We were in a comparatively level region grown up with Manigua bushes, fifteen to twenty feet high on a road flanked with stone walls. Some drovers told us it was impossible to drive to Frias, but we continued until finally, well on toward evening, we reached a palm hut near an imposing ruin, all that is left of the tavern Frias. We unhitched and expected to stay for the night. The woman living here, dressed in a canvas skirt, profusely smeared with the red coral clay that formed the floor of her house, in answer to inquiries about blind fishes told us in a naïve way of a vase at La Paz, at Ashton and a third near Ashton, Los Baños, in all which she had seen little white fishes, and all these caves within easy walking distance. Near Alacranes we asked whether there were any fishes in the caves near by and were told, "Yes, but they don't amount to anything, they have no eyes!"

The man of the house came shortly and showed us the well of Frias; then we started, much to the disgust of our volanteman, for the plantation Ashton, where he assured us we could get better quarters. We met the manager of Ashton and he led the way at once to the cave of Ashton, some distance from the houses. We were afoot and the volanteman came after us pouring out a voluble stream of expletives, shouting that he could not follow us in the dark, that his shafts were broken, and we would have to stop, and with equal veracity that the father of his horse was a billy goat. We came to Ashton cave unexpectedly for there were no general surface indications that we were in a cave country. We were, however, in the very midst of the blind fish caves. We discovered later that instead of taking us to the place stipulated our volanteman had driven us for six dollars parallel with the railroad over which we had passes. We saw that the cave of Ashton was nothing but a sink hole about one hundred feet across with water at the bottom. As it was night, and we had enough for one day, we went to the house, expecting buildings and supper proportionate to the name Plantation Ashton. We found a few palm huts and a large tobacco barn and the supper a cup of black coffee and a cigarette. As it was late we asked for beds. We were taken to the tobacco barn where



LUCIFUGA, A BLIND FISH CONTAINING INBORN YOUNG WITH WELL-DEVELOPED EYES

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CAVE ASHTON NO. 1, FROM OUTSIDE.

a few palm fronds acting as a door were pulled aside and we were ushered in. I was furnished a wire cot with a cocoa mat and blanket as my bed, and Mr. Riddle slung his hammock. There was a stiff breeze all night and it grew uncomfortably cold by midnight. We put on all the clothes we had with us and still we shook.

A surpise was in store for us in the character of our breakfast. It consisted of black coffee and a cigarette—absolutely nothing more. Housekeeping is very simple here.

After breakfast we went to the cave. The cave is so open that the water in it was everywhere well lighted. When we arrived a blind fish was quietly swimming in deep water out of reach of our dip nets. Others were discovered near shore and by noon we had caught about eight and the success of the expedition was assured.

At dinner we had fried eggs and chicken and rice cooked together into a dry stew. Our advent and mission had been heralded abroad and two neighbors, Messrs. Martinez, had arrived in overcoats. They took us to the cave Los Baños where we caught another fish or two and then we went with them to their plantation, the Isabella. For supper here we had the exact duplicate of our dinner. We at once visited two caves near by, in one of which we caught two fishes, one about six inches long and larger than the largest on record.

Our experience that night was similar to that of the night before except that we had company. Three young men, each armed with a machete, marched into the tobacco house in which we were, and took to as many hammocks. I confess to feeling somewhat creepy in having three unknown fellows speaking an unknown tongue come marching into our "bedroom." I did not feel sure whether our heads would be on or off next morning. But when about two o'clock at night, we lighted our can-

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CAVE ASHTON NO. 1, AT BOTTOM.

dles and put on extra clothes and ran up and down the barn to get warm, their hilariousness at our expense showed them to be jolly country boys who much enjoyed our discomfort.

CAVE MODESTA IN CUBA.
Mr. Riddle beginning to descend.

After the usual after-dinner cup of coffee, we tramped from sink-hole to sink-hole in a broiling sun, getting back at noon, when we had our usual bill of fare of rice and chicken with the addition of yuca, an unpalatable stringy root, and plantains. In the afternoon we started for Havana to get proper clothing and to take a new start.

A word as to the caves themselves.

The soil over the regions under consideration is thin, the surface of the very irregularly corroded rocks jutting out in numerous places. This, together with the fact that the water of the underground streams is but a few feet underground, gives the region an entirely different aspect from the sink-hole and subterranean-stream regions in Indiana and Kentucky. It is impossible to enter the underground

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channels, and there are no funnels on the surface to indicate the location of an underground stream or its tributary. In places the thin limestone roof of an underground chamber has fallen and enables one to get to the water which was not flowing in any of the numerous places we visited. The water is remarkably clear, as clear as the water of Lake Tahoe, or the limestone springs in Florida, as clear as any in the world. With one or two exceptions, it was covered with a continuous crust of carbonate of lime due to the evaporation and discharge of carbon dioxide from the surface of the perfectly quiet lime water. When the water is disturbed flakes of variable size break loose and gradually sink to the bottom.

The caves for the most part do not have distinctive names, but are called after the Finca or plantation on which they occur. Modesta cave is an ideal cave of which all the others in the Cañas region, with very few exceptions, are imperfect duplicates. There is nothing to distinguish it when a few feet away. The cave is bell-shaped with an opening between ten and fifteen feet wide at the top. A tree, growing at its margin, sends vertical roots down to the bottom. On one of these roots, notches have been cut and the descent is made by means of them. At the water level the cave was oval in section, thirty by forty feet in extent. In the middle of the bell and immediately under the opening there was a large pile of rocks, cemented together in places by stalagmitic material and rising but a few inches above the water. The water, beautifully clear, became rapidly deeper in all directions and could be seen to extend out in at least two directions in deepening channels filled to their top with water. The roots descending from the opening at the top to the island, a distance of about fifteen feet, here divided suddenly into a tuft of innumerable rootlets, most of them in the water. Such roots were found in almost all the

SAN ANTONIO DE LOS BAÑOS.
Cave where the Ariguanato River disappears.

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THE MODESTA CAVE IN CUBA.

caves and the young blind fishes were always found in among the rootlets, the big ones among the rocks. Standing in this bell-shaped cave with blind fishes belonging to the deep sea swimming below, one can readily imagine that he has descended to the bottom of the ocean in a huge diving bell.

Most of the caves are larger. Some smaller ones are used as wells either as nature made them or modified with masonry. In many of the larger ones part of the sides and roof have fallen so that one can walk to the bottom on an inclined plane. The water in this type is confined to a cresent-shaped pool instead of a doughtnut-shaped one. Ashton is a cave of this second sort.

We started from Havana on our second trip to the Cañas caves provided with clothing that insured our comfort. At Cañas we were to be met by a bullock team at 8 o'clock and taken to Isabella. But the bulls had not yet been caught when we arrived and we went to the little town of Cañas to photograph and visit some acquaintances we had made. The school teacher was enlisted in the cause of science and through him we secured several blind lizards and a number of blind snakes, both species burrowing in the ground, one of them totally, the other only partially blind. Despairing of the bulls, we took the most necessary articles and walked. Our road lay, at first, for about a mile under a row of magnificent royal palms. At the Finca Rosa a double row of palms leads up to a ridiculously inadequate house for such an approach.

We had breakfast at 10 o'clock at Isabella and started at once on the round of the caves. By the time we were ready to start, a fair-sized cavalcade had collected to accompany us and it increased considerably as we went along. We walked, but proceeded at a lively gait so that our followers were soon scattered out in a puffing string. Luck was with us. We visited caves Modesta, one and two, Hawel, San Isidro, one and two, Las Frias, one and two, Ashton and Los Baños. We caught three fishes in Modesta: in Hawel, where we had caught fifteen before, we caught none, though we could see them swimming tantalizingly beyond our reach. In San Isidro we caught four, in Frias, seven, in Ashton four, and in Los Baños one. In three days we caught forty-eight blind fishes of both species, not at all a bad record when it is considered that it had taken me over three years to catch one blind fish in Indiana. At 6 o'clock p. m., we started home from Los Baños, quite ready to return to rice and chicken.

THE CAVE HAWEL IN CUBA.
Formerly used as a well.

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BOOKS

The Labor Movement in Recent Fiction.

BY

WALLACE RICE.

"I TELL you it doesn't pay to see two sides at once; it only makes a man cross-eyed," says a man of wealth whose income is largely derived from a shoe factory, in Mrs. Helen Choate Prince's "The Strongest Master;" and the American thinking world seems to be avoiding the danger of mental strabismus in labor questions with more assiduity than reason. This is the conclusion reached by most of those who have seen both sides in contact with real life, and it is quite as true of the novels of contemporary life with which the student has here to deal.

"Every man prefers belief to the exercise of judgment," says Seneca. "It is hopeless to expect men to think when they are making money," remarked an editorial writer in the New York *World* two years ago. We know, without citation of authority, that most men find their opinions ready made for them. In novels, as in real life, these factors all prevail, and they are further complicated by the fact that America has its own traditions of independence and freedom, not yet successfully modified for purposes of the industrial civilization we are assimilating, and even further complicated by the presence in the country of workmen of European habits of thought, often overlaid with an anticipation of industrial liberty not attained in the United States.

MRS. HELEN CHOATE PRINCE.

As a result of all these things, one finds as many points of view as there are authors in the novels in which the labor problem is presented. Just as it has been discovered that, while no newspaper contains all the truth in any matter in which principles are involved, it is still possible

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MR. FRANK L. NASON.
Author of "The Blue Goose."

to derive the whole truth from the entire body of the press by a process of elimination, so is it possible to obtain some fundamental truths from these novels taken as an entirety—or it would be had the socialists been successful in making any fictional presentation of their case. The various books have been written for the most part by men and women in sympathy with capital rather than labor, it is true, and by Americans who believe in an old-fashioned individualism and disregard for the social conscience which is far from reassuring; but there is still a presentation of the other side from which comfort can be obtained.

In the works most strongly partisan correction must be made for that old, old fallacy in which the best on your side is contrasted with the worst on the side of your opponent. In Mr. Guy Wetmore Carryl's "The Lieutenant-Governor," for example, all the capitalists and their kith and kin are of the highest probity, principle, and character, while all those concerned with the cause of labor are demagogues, irresponsible, illiterate, and dishonest. It is the point of view of Charles Reade's "Put Yourself in His Place," the work of an Englishman aristocratically inclined and written a full generation ago, in 1870, wherein the right of the capitalist or of the non-union man to consider his own interests without the slightest regard to those of his fellows or of the community at large is insisted upon. Those who know are aware that countless strikes are settled in favor of the working people without an appeal to violence on their side or the bringing out of the militia on the other, clearly because the employees in such cases are asking for no more than their due. But Mr. Carryl knows nothing of these: "The adoption of stringent measures," he observes, "was all that is needed to break the backbone of the strike"—and "stringent measures" means "the presence of the Ninth Regiment, under command of that noted disciplinarian, and terribly in earnest."

In Mr. Carryl's book the scene is appropriately laid in "Alleghenia," a State which is assuredly Pennsylvania under disguise. In "The Blue Goose" of Mr. Frank Lewis Nason, on the other hand, the action takes place in a gold mine in the West. Mr. Nason has a stalwart American among his workingmen, and he expresses with exactitude the feeling of an unthinking American of the old stock regarding labor unions and labor leaders, when he speaks thus: "When it comes to bosses, I'll choose my own. I'm American and American born. I'd rather be bossed by a silk tile and kid gloves than by a Tipperary hat and a shillelah, with a damned three-cornered shamrock riding the necks of both. It's a pretty pass we've come to if we've got to go to Irish peat-bogs and Russian snow-banks to find them as will tell us our rights and how to get them, and then import dagoes with rings in their ears and Hungarians with spikes in their shoes to back us up. Let me talk a bit! I get my seventy-five dollars a month for knowing my business and attending to it, because my grub goes down the necks of the men instead of out on the dump; because I give more time to a side of bacon than I do to organizing unions. And I'll tell you some more facts. The rich are

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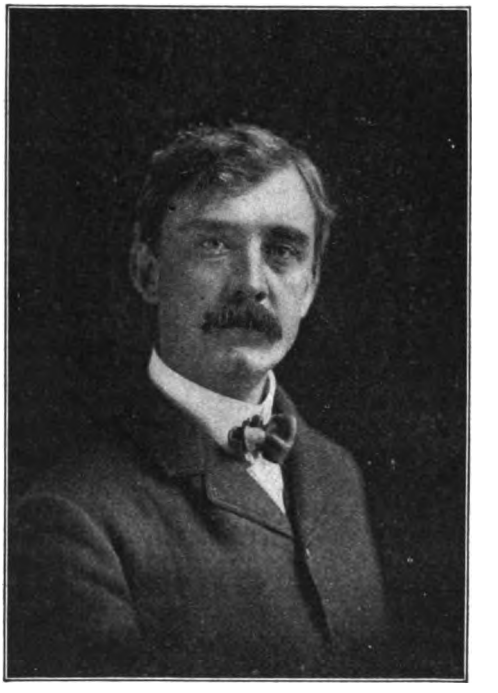
growing richer for using what they have and the poor are growing poorer because they don't know enough to handle what they've got. Organize a union for keeping damned fools out of the Blue Goose (a saloon and gambling-house), and from going home and lamming hell out of their wives and children, and I'll talk with you."

Crude, unsympathetic, unreasonable, and untrue as these remarks are, they are fairly those of Mr. Carryl. But Mr. Nason has been an employer of just such labor as he describes in his interesting book, and he has seen the other side, though his sympathies are still on the side of the employer, as is only natural. He voices his own sentiments in this admirable paragraph, earlier in the narrative: "We forgot for the moment, as often happens, that the factors in the problem are not homogeneous digits with fixed values, but complex personalities with decided opinions of their own as to their individual and relative importance, as well as pugnacious tendencies for compelling an acceptance of their assumptions by equally pugnacious factors which claim a differential valuation in their own favor. It really compels us to defer attempts at final solution, for the time being, at least; to make the best adjustment possible under present conditions, putting off to the future the final application, much on the same principle that communities bond their present possessions for their own good and complacently bestow upon posterity the obligation of settling the bills. Considered in this light, the end of the struggle between capital and labor is not yet. Each is striving for the sole possession and control of things that belong to neither alone. Each looks upon the other not as a co-laborer but as a rival, instead of making intelligent and united effort for an object unattainable by either alone. If capital would smoke this in his cigar and labor the same in his pipe, the soothing effects might tend to more amicable and effective use of what is now dissipated energy."

A little further on Mr. Nason remarks, "Miners and millmen, for the most part recent importations from all countries of Europe, have come from the realms of oppression to the land of the free with very exaggerated notions of what freedom really was." Mrs. Mary E. Wilkins Freeman, in "The Portion of Labor," phrases this differently in mentioning the effect upon an audience of factory operatives, many of them of foreign birth, of an essay on "Equality," as follows: "Many of them were people of foreign blood who had come to the country expecting the state of things advocated, and had remained more or less sullen and dissenting at the non-fulfillment of their expectation." Granting crude ideas of freedom and equality on the part of immigrants, Americans should bear in mind



GEORGE KIBBE TURNER.
Author of "The Taskmasters"

the judgment of De Tocqueville, quoted at the beginning of Mr. George Kibbe Turner's "The Taskmasters," to the following effect: "I am of the opinion, upon the whole, that the manufacturing aristocracy, which is growing up under our eyes, is one of the harshest which ever existed in the world. * * * The friends of democracy should keep their eyes anxiously fixed in this direction; for if ever a permanent inequality of conditions and aristocracy again penetrate into the world, it may be predicted that this is the gate by which they will enter."

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Mrs. Freeman, indeed, writing of a New England shoe factory and its people, employing and employed, presents another point of view, quite as distinctly American as that of Mr. Nason's cook. An old woman, the mother and grandmother of operatives, sees the wife of their employer drive by and, Mrs. Freeman observes, "She felt herself every whit as good as Mrs. Norman Lloyd, and her handsome Paisley shawl and velvet bonnet as genteel as the other woman's sealskins and floating plumes." Again, when brought into contact with a kinswoman of Mrs. Lloyd's, the old woman and her daughter-in-law have the following little conversation: "'That was Cynthia Lennox, wasn't it?' Fanny said, with something like awe. 'Wasn't that an elegant cloak she had on? I guess it was Russian sable.' 'I don't care if it was, it ain't a mite handsomer than my cape lined with squirrel,'" remarked the sturdy old American. And another character in the book, an operative, speaks in the same spirit when he says, "I don't care nothin' about the everlastin' foundation of things, and I don't care a darn about the rich and the poor. I'm willin' to leave that to lecturers and dynamiters, and let 'em settle it if they can. I don't grudge the rich nothin', and I ain't goin' to call the Almighty to account for givin' somebody else the biggest piece of pie; mebbe it would give me the stomach-ache."

But Mrs. Freeman places the other view in abrupt contrast. "'Look at Norman Lloyd,' one of her American workmen cries out, 'havin' that great house, and horses and carriages, and dressin' like a dude, and his wife rustlin' in silks so you can hear her comin' a mile off, and shinin' like a jeweler's window—look at 'em all—all the factory bosses—livin' like princes on the money we've earned for 'im; and look at their relations, and look at the rich folks that ain't never earned a cent, that's had money left 'em. Go right up and down the Main street, here in this city.'" And a friend of the Lloyds', though speaking in sarcasm, voices the sentiments of his class when he discusses the sending of a gifted girl in the operative class to college. "'What is the use of educating that unfortunate child?'" he asks, and then answers himself, thus: "'What is the use? There she is in her sphere of life, the daughter of a factory operative, in all probability in after-years to be the wife of one and the mother of others. Nothing but a rich marriage can save her, and that she is not likely to make. Now, why do you want to increase the poor child's horizon farther than her little feet can carry her? Fit her to be a good female soldier in the ranks of labor, to be a good wife and mother to the makers of shoes, to wash and iron their uniforms of toil, to cook well the food which affords them the necessary nourishment to make shoes, to appreciate book-lore, which is a pleasure and a profit to the maker of shoes; possibly in the event of non-marriage she will make shoes herself."

Lest this seem exaggerated, take a conversation Mrs. Prince reports in "The Strongest Master," held on the deck of a private yacht. Her hero, who has been acting as bookkeeper in a shoe-factory in order to obtain the information needful to set up an ideal factory of his own later, hears the comments of the men in his own station of life, says nothing in reply, knowing the futility of argument in such cases, so lets "them go on with their assertions that the country was going to the dogs unless some strong combine against the employees were made, that factory hands were overpaid and underworked, that the employer might make a profit a good year, but that he had to stand the losses after a bad season, and so on. One man cited with unction the fact that every man employed on a certain western railroad owned a cottage, where his wife vibrated between her sewing-machine and her parlor organ. 'And every one of those luxuries comes out of the stockholders' pockets, damn it!' he ended, drowning his wrongs in a long drink." And Mr. Turner quotes the great captain of industry who is the central figure of "The Taskmasters," as saying, "'When you make an employee, you make an enemy.'"

Mr. Will Payne, in "The Plant at High Grove," one of the tales in his excellent book, "On Fortune's Road," voices the disappointment the employer feels when he finds his men merely consenting, without enthusiasm, to accept a reduction in wages made necessary by trust competition. "There was nothing," he remarks, "of the enthusiasm, nothing of the ideal

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communal loyalty which he had expected." Similarly, the hero of Mr. Frederick Trevor Hill's "The Minority," when he comes to face a strike because he has discharged one of his men, has to say, "For a time I was so angry I could think of nothing better than defiance and the discharge of every man who didn't come back in twenty-four hours. That meant fighting, and I was in the mood for war, but I've been playing the sickly sentimentalist too long for them not to beat me at any such game. We've been building up a village of employees for years, watching it like a lot of old hens, and dreaming that the people who lived in it considered the firm their best friend. Well, they don't now, whatever they may have done in former times." In both these instances there is a failure of paternal methods, and a demand for rights as such, rather than privileges to be accorded or withheld at the employer's option. And who shall say which attitude is the less characteristically American?

In both these books last mentioned, the question of the trust arises. It is evident that between the trust and the labor union there is a conflict of crude forces rather than any ordinary human relations, paternal, feudal, or other. There is more than that. In both instances the trust is anxious to obtain control of an independent plant, and to that end procures by bribery the services of a venal labor leader to instigate trouble for the purpose of forcing the hand of the independent concern. In Mr. Thomas Nelson Page's "Gordon Keith," as in Mr. A. F. Wilson's "The Wars of Peace," rival concerns procure the blowing up of property by dynamite through the services of laboring men. It is worth taking into account that some of the grossest excesses of labor unions are thus held by four recent writers with means for knowing to be the work originally of rival capital working through means purely anarchical to its own selfish ends.

Miss Marie Van Vorst will be remembered as a young New York woman of position and influence who herself entered a factory or two and there obtained knowledge of working-people at first hand. She had already displayed a deep concern for them in her novel, "Philip Longstreth," in which the hero is a young man of humanitarian feeling, the son of a New York multi-millionaire, who goes into a shoe-factory for much the same reason that Mrs. Prince's hero did, but with capital enough to carry out his idea of educating his workingmen and women, and giving them a share of their labor. "'I want to be a practical philanthropist,' he tells his father, 'to go directly among the working-classes, not as a workman, but as an employer.'" And to the girl who loves him he explains further, "'I intend becoming part of the working machine, one of the company of workers. On the other side of the gulf they are enduring what we have never comprehended. Their petty grievances make a gigantic wrong.'" As in so many cases where the public demand for a love story is insistent, the action is complicated by the suddenly springing affection between the hero and one of the workwomen, Miss Van Vorst taking the same pains to make her an exceptionally refined and intelligent workwoman as Mrs. Freeman and Mrs. Prince have done in their respective books. It is only in Mr. Hervey White's strong novel, "Differences," that any American has dared reverse the matrimonial problem, and cause a girl both rich and refined to be married to a workman. Mr. White writes with full knowledge of the difficulties of his problem, but the others testify quite as strongly to the existence of classes in the land for doing it unwittingly—the classes in all three cases being the educated and cultivated rather than the well born and wealthy. It is evident that the cultivated regard themselves as the superior order of being, with little regard to such fundamental questions as morality and temperament.

In every case, however, the woman a rich young man marries must be an American of the old stock. More than this, all the labor agitators are of Irish birth or extraction—the grandchildren of Americans, in the estimation of the Americans who write novels, are incapable of becoming labor agitators. One partial exception only is to be noted: Mr. I. K. Friedman, himself a son of a man of German birth, makes his hero an American clergyman who finds more for his hand to do in the way of benefiting his fellows by becoming a labor leader than by occupying the pulpit. This is prob-

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ably due to the fact already observed that foreigners expect more of American liberty than Americans who are making money under it, and are asking for more freedom than Americans of the older stock are willing to accord those of an inferior economic class. In the "Calumet K" of Messrs. Samuel W. Merwin and Henry K. Webster the man who makes trouble is an Irishman, and the man who soothes the savage mind of his fellow-laborers is an American by inference. In every case, the rank and file—Mr. Friedman's book excepted—are of foreign birth. Even when foreigners are in positions of power, as in Miss Van Vorst's story, they are the cause of trouble among employees. It is curious to note this clinging of national prejudices to Americans of the old stock, whether on the side of American ideals or not, and it may be taken as a minor effect of the working out in practice of the younger Decatur's wicked toast to "My Country, right or wrong!" Indeed, it is worth observing in this connection that it is two Americans of German birth and training who have provided the American people with toasts more in accord with their own ideals: Mr. Carl Schurz, when he said, "My country, when wrong, may she be set right!" and Francis Lieber, with the aphorism, *"Patria cara, carior libertas, veritas carissima!"*

It is further significant that Mr. Friedman, a Jew by race and religion, is the only one of the authors cited who has a member of the clergy or a professed Christian interesting himself in working-people. Are we to say that, as immigrants have higher ideals of American freedom than Americans of ancient descent, so non-Christians find the teachings of Jesus more sympathetic with the workmen than members of Christian churches are?

It is rather noticeable that in all the books considered those which lean most strongly to the side of the employer as against that of the employee have no remedy to propose for the problems involved. It is only those who let their sympathies go out to the laborer who make any suggestions. These, it may be said in brief, are all in the nature of the recommendations of the late Pope Leo XIII, to the end that men and women are not to be hired in accordance with any "iron law of wages," but with reference to their being paid enough to enable them, and their children after them, to carry on the duties of Christian citizenship. That is, the novelists see no solution for existing labor difficulties except in the working out in practice of the Golden Rule, and they are unable to see even so much as this when on the side of Dives.

The dictum that the best democrats are those of aristocratic birth and breeding finds some support in the attitude of the hero of C. H. Henderson's "John Percyfield." The book closes before anything practical is done; but it affords enough exposition of the socialistic point of view to enable the reader to judge that future progress in solving present labor difficulties must be through an improved condition of the environment of labor, in conjunction with an improved individual conscience on the part of both employer and employed, at once the cause and effect of bettered industrial conditions.

It is noticeable, too, that not one of these authors, wherever their sympathies may be placed, refrains from charging the working-people with violence and devastation, both to individuals and property. In many cases this can, of course, be attributed to the exigencies of romance writing, which make little use of the customary and usual because of its lack of dramatic possibility, and so must introduce crimes against both the person and property, in order to give their works of fiction that quality which Mr. F. Marion Crawford insists upon above all others, of being interesting and entertaining. But, as all these stories are also informing and enlightening in purpose, it is a pity that the reading public finds deferred to an indefinite period in the future the portrayal of a labor leader who is both an American and animated by the spirit of American institutions, who is seeking the good of his country as well as of his fellows in obtaining for them a wage that shall enable themselves and their children to maintain an American standard of living and education. It is the more unfortunate because too many Americans, not in contact with the present results of the transition into an industrial democracy from a political democracy, rely upon such novels for their ideas of what the labor movement is and what its leaders are.

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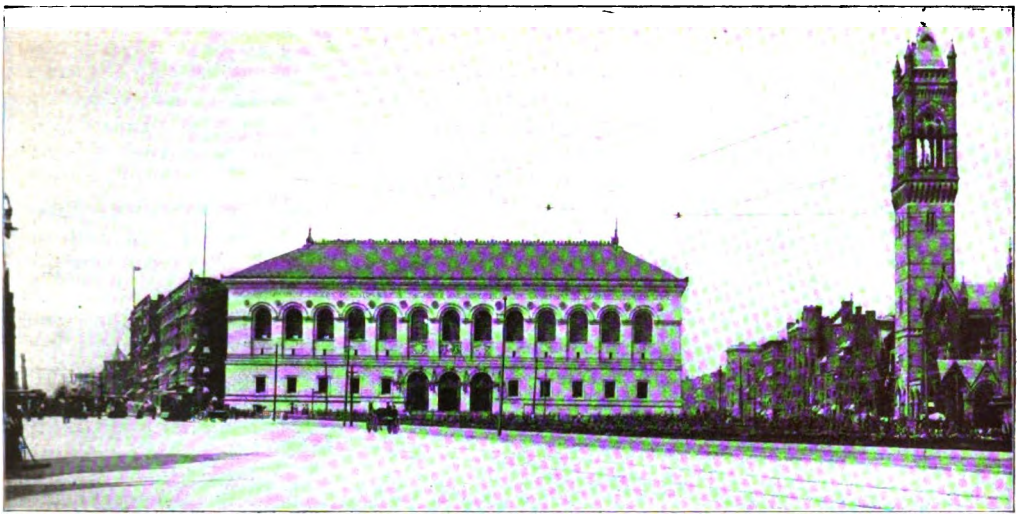

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City Characters—Boston.

BY

ELTWEED POMEROY, M. A.

TO one who has never visited the codfish metropolis, at once there comes to mind the jeers of the facile newspaper paragrapher about Boston's baked beans, her east wind and "culcha," and the stereotyped jokes about her infant phenomena talking in sesquipedalian words. Perhaps, if your imagination is good, your ideas body forth a rather angular female of uncertain age, wearing glasses and clothed with good taste but simple severity in dark colors.

Of course this is a gross exaggeration, but there is an atom of truth in it. My ideal of Boston would be a woman of ripe age, of large, strong physique, but with so intellectual a cast to her features that you thought at once of her strength of mind and not of her body. Her expression is pleasing, with a readiness to accept new ideas as at least worthy of thought. Her talk and manner are restful, while at the same time vivacious. Her dress is simple and plain, but made of rich materials, with just a hint of the latest fashion in its cut to show that she could be in full fashion if she wished to, but that she rather scorned the fashions. For her mind works in these delicate nuances; she loves to hint at meanings. No one but a true Bostonian really appreciates Henry James with his carefully graded side-lights by which he suggests character but never really looks it full in the face.

Someone has said that Boston is not a geographical place but an attitude of mind. This is funny, but it is partly true. She is called the modern Athens, and this is only another way of saying the same thing. There is an alertness in the mental attitude, an openness of mind to receive new thoughts, a fondness for discussion and intellectual gymnastics that was characteristic of ancient Athens. Ofttimes this fondness for mental exercise goes so far that it is made an end, and ceases to be a means to an end. Hence the truth in the saying that Boston is a good place for a reform to be born in and then move away from. She is often so apt and ready for new impressions that she lacks time to apply the old ones.

A score of years ago the sweep of the

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Bellamy or Nationalist movement took this modern Athens by storm and there were meetings everywhere and papers and magazines galore. Then came along the Spiritualists and swept thousands into their meetings, and they still have a big, costly but rather ugly Spiritualist Temple which belies the usual Boston good taste in architecture. An editor of one of their largest dailies told me at that time that three-fourths of the men you met on Tremont Street were Spiritualists. Then the Theosophists with their newer doctrines took the wind out of the sails of the Spiritualists and now the Christian Scientists and mental healers have succeeded the Theosophists. By and by some newer creed or screed will oust the Christian Scientists.

OLD NORTH CHURCH, BOSTON, CELEBRATED IN CONNECTION WITH PAUL REVERE'S RIDE.

When Sullivan, the ex-prize fighter, opened a saloon in Boston, an old lady there heard much talk about the pugilists, and turning to a friend, she asked: "Pugilists! Pugilists! What do they believe?" There is a reverse side of Boston's intellectuality, and it is seamy and unpleasant.

There is a dividing line, faint, subtle, but strong, between New England and the rest of the country. New England is different and Boston is the epitome of New England. This dividing line is not only in thought but also in material affairs. The great manufacturers of blank books in New York cannot sell their ordinary stock in New England. They must make up a special line or do without the business. The result is that three or four Boston blank-book makers, producing the line specially suited to the New England taste, have nearly all that business; but they do not sell these goods beyond the New York State line. New England manufactures goods that sell all over the world, but for her own use she wants certain special finishes which it often seems that no one but a native can know and make.

The same is true of mental matters, and the result is that the Westerner does not know Boston and is rather suspicious of her, and a genuine, unadulterated Bostonian, when he does condescend to go west—and to many still, the West means the western part of Massachusetts or New York State—he is inclined to think it crude, raw, unfinished. There was a time when New England led the whole country by sheer force of brain power, but that day is gone. Many of her most virile men have emigrated west, and a dilletantism has sprung up living largely on the past and separating New England from the rest of the country. Her leadership in publishing books has moved to New York, and literary lights who have never seen the gilded dome of her capitol have sprung up all over the country.

In politics New England statesmen have been great, but since the Civil War none of them has been among the really first-class leaders of the country. Blaine is the only New Englander that had any chance

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THE ART MUSEUM, BOSTON.

of being President, and he was born west of the Alleghanies and in his attitude was really a Westerner. And Maine, his home, in many parts repeats the characteristics of the West and not of New England. Many of their local leaders think they ought to be national leaders, but the rest of the country does not agree with their own opinion of themselves.

While the old Puritan stock has largely vanished from rural New England, it is strong in Boston, despite its succession of Irish mayors; and Boston is a great, virile, handsome city. Its streets are crooked and it has most surprising alleys and back ways; and that reminds me of the story of the Bostonian and the Philadelphian. The latter lamented that Boston was not as well laid out as Philadelphia, whereat the reply came like a flash that when Boston was as dead as Philadelphia she would be as well laid out. It is a crooked city, but one comes to love its odd corners and nooks, its short cuts and alleys, its very unexpectedness. Boston is the only American city that boasts professional guides. Twice daily does one start from the corner of Old Park Church. The city is rich in historical associations, and these are reverently preserved by its present townsmen.

There are few slums in Boston and many noble parts. No city has such a magnificent central pleasure ground as the Boston Common with its frog pond and the adjacent beautifully-kept flower gardens. At one end, the gilt dome of her stately, old-fashioned state-house overlooks it and up one side sweeps Beacon Street with its lovely old homes and aristocratic but home-like air, and on another is Tremont Street with its stores of leisure business; and not far off is Copley Square surrounded by Trinity Church, the Library, and Art Museum, perhaps the noblest group of buildings in America. It is significantly characteristic of Boston that her public library is her handsomest public building. It is situated in her most noble

THE TERMINAL STATION, BOSTON.

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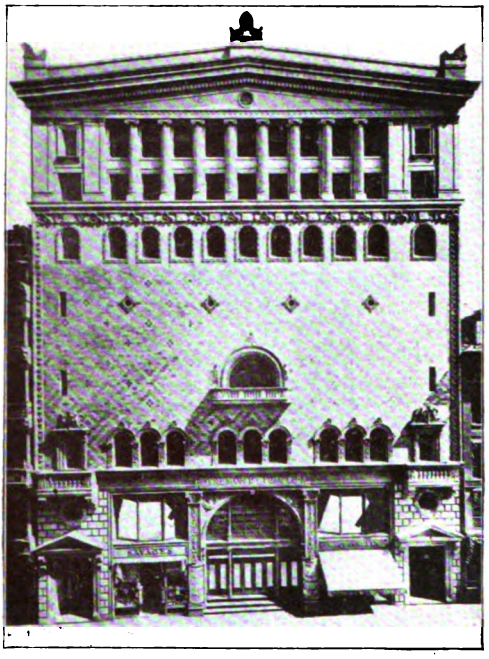

TREMONT TEMPLE, BOSTON.

location and has the most artistic decorations inside probably of all buildings in America. In fact, the frescoes will compare favorably with buildings in Europe. Near by stretches the Back-bay, one of the finest residential districts in the country. And out at Brookline, where the town meetings are still held as they were held nearly three centuries ago, at Cambridge with its aristocratic Harvard University, at Jamaica Plains, Forest Hills, Malden, etc., are some of the loveliest suburban districts in the world.

Boston's climate is delightful in the late spring, summer, and fall; but woe to the unfortunate who stays there during the winter and early spring. Sleet, ice, rain, raw and unwelcome weather are his portion. A friend from the balmy climate on Puget Sound landed there in March. After a week he said that if the Pilgrim fathers had only landed at the foot of Mount Tacoma the white bears would still be roaming around Boston. And you have all heard of Mark Twain's globe-trotter who had traveled far and wide making a collection of climates and he came to Boston and finished his collection within one week.

Boston has a strong, pulsing life. Its business men are keen, shrewd. It has a strong civic spirit flowering largely along educational, intellectual and philanthropic lines. It is a handsome, well-preserved, growing city, but somehow there is still something provincial about it. It is not cosmopolitan like New York, Chicago, or even slow Philadelphia; or even like the smaller cities of Cleveland, Detroit, Kansas City. It is so subtle you cannot put your finger on it and name it, but there is, pervasive as the atmosphere, an intellectual activity, aloofness, and narrowness making Boston entirely different from the other cities of this country. (For additional illustrations see front of this issue.) [The foregoing is the third of a series of articles on "City Characters." New York has already been dealt with; Philadelphia, Chicago, and others will follow.]

CANCER CURED BY RADIUM.—The news that cancerous growths have been successfully cauterized and ultimately cured by means of radium suggests a possible important use for this substance. As radium is found in mineral deposits in the United States, as well as in Austrian pitchblende, some believe that conditions will not always be so unfavorable to medical experimentation with it. Moreover, the present complicated methods of preparation are being simplified.

OLD STATE HOUSE, BOSTON.

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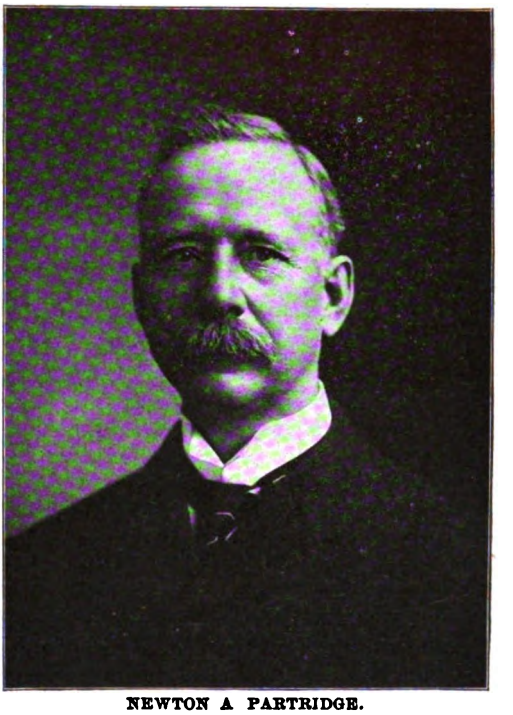
The Redemption of Chicago.

BY

NEWTON A. PARTRIDGE.

THOUGH much we may deplore it the fact exists and must be recognized that in many respects Chicago fails of appreciation in the eastern portion of our common country. The political features, among others of our municipal life, come in for criticism especially strong. It has recently been announced by a New York judge in commenting upon a case before him of peculiar atrocity that the crime in question was worthy of Chicago, if newspaper accounts may be trusted. Chicago is fortunate, however, in being able to show marked improvement in regard to its city government.



NEWTON A PARTRIDGE.

Chicago is a most cosmopolitan city representing more than a score of nations, each strong enough to support periodicals in its own language, and comprising a population less than one-third of whom are the children of native born parents. Essentially the most American among American cities in its characteristics, racially it is the most foreign of them all. Growing out of these facts, or in spite of them, as the case may be, it has developed a strong tendency toward a better city government which shall, nevertheless, be popular government.

Until quite lately, we must admit, the conditions controlling the city government were bad enough to warrant severe criticism. Such conditions, it is true, Chicago suffered, in common with the other large cities of the United States. Whenever attention was forced upon the sorry character of our city councils and boards of aldermen it was customary to fall back on the assertion that no better could reasonably be expected because our large cities were hopelessly engulfed in a mass of ignorant foreign born voters, on the one hand, and of educated citizens, on the other, who were engrossed by their business cares and so blinded by indifference and pessimism that they had practically abdicated the duties and labors of the proper exercise of the elective franchise. It was also asserted that the business of carrying elections had become so complicated that those who made an occupation of politics had thereby gained an amount of skill, not possible for the mass of citizens, who therefore could not successfully enter the field and control nominations and elections. These practical politicians, like a comparatively small but well disciplined army, could easily overcome whatever opposition the disorganized forces of the body of the people could bring to bear against them.

The necessity for using elections during the off years to maintain party discipline

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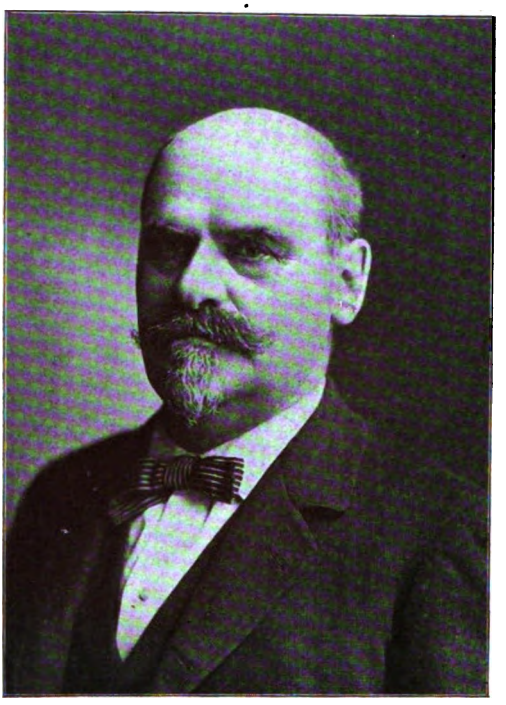

GEORGE E. COLE.
First President of the Municipal Voters' League.

and organization for use in national campaigns was strongly urged. Not unnaturally the mass of citizens in Chicago had arrived at the conclusions that, first, the politicians would, somehow or other, find the means to control nominations and elections, in spite of all the people could do or attempt to prevent such a result; second, those who thus devoted their time to politics, that is, to the business of controlling nominations and carrying elections, would find a way to obtain payment for their time and services and to reward their satellites. Certainly, it is not truer that they who serve the altar must live by the altar, than it is that those who serve the boss must be paid by the boss and that such payment will, in the end, be extracted from the public or the service must and will cease. Those to whom we confide the control of our government and who assume its burdens, will enjoy its emoluments. It is not easy to see how to escape the inevitability of the professional politicians who blossom as "bosses" or abound as "ward heelers."

Chicago, eight or ten years ago, if not worse was certainly no better than its sister cities in having a common council where, between the element which was actively corrupt and those members who weakly yielded to its control, a majority was certain to recur to carry through any measure in favor of a great private interest which promised sufficient pecuniary reward to make it worth while to manipulate the city council. The condition in Chicago was merely the outgrowth and culmination of a score of years preceding that time. Selfishness, greed, indifference, and supineness had digged a pit in which the city seemed helpless, and on this topic the great body of its citizens were practically hopeless.

Not the least exasperating feature of the case was the attitude of cool contempt taken by the "gray wolves" toward the respectable members of the city council and the public at large when "things were doing." They acted as though they, alone, were practical men of affairs and that honesty in city matters belonged only to theorists and dreamers. "Run along, sonny, with your playthings while we men do business," was, in effect, the usual answer vouchsafed to any critic of themselves and their measures, whether in or out of the council chamber. Of course, they had their bullies who adopted, on occasion, a blustering tone, especially if their success was at all threatened.

The means of redemption that have been sucessfully employed in Chicago must be the object of the keenest interest to all those in a similar situation and to all lovers of good government and of free institutions. The great cities in the United States have been too long a reproach in their municipal governments and have been too often pointed out as foreshadowing the speedy disintegration and decay of popular government in the slough of corruption.

In the fall of 1895 the Civic Federation of Chicago took up more actively and earnestly than ever before the possibility of bettering municipal conditions through an improved membership of the common council. Acting with other organizations it had helped to pass the civil service act through the legislature the preceding spring and to secure its adoption at the April election of 1895, which had been successful by a surprising majority. The vote was 109,353 for, to 59,368 against that act, and it gave renewed courage to

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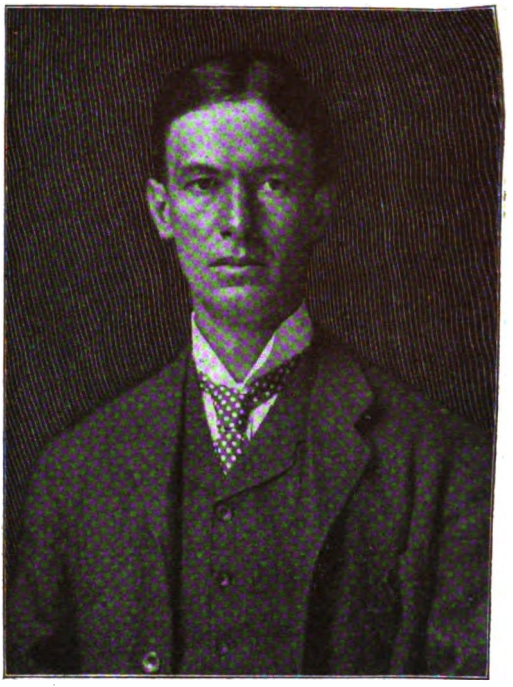
the foes of corruption because it showed the vast majority of the electorate was sound and honest whenever an issue was presented which interested it, and on which it could act simply and directly. The people, then, could be depended on. The problem was, how to reach them. It was evident that the time was ripe for a further step in the right direction. Various propositions were discussed and considered and the movement finally took the form of calling a public meeting and the appointment of a committee of one hundred. It was soon deemed expedient to make the movement independent of the Civic Federation, and the Municipal Voters' League was organized. It is by that body the work has been done and through it the result attained has been achieved.

By securing an independent organization the League avoided various animosities which had been aroused in different quarters against the Civic Federation and it therefore encountered no antagonism *not* directly connected with its own especial work. This point is important.

The first steps taken by the Municipal Voters' League were simple and direct and consisted mainly in demanding that



WILLIAM KENT.
President Municipal Voters' League 1898-1900.

HOYT KING.
Secretary Municipal Voters' League 1896-1898.

the party organizations should not nominate as candidate for alderman anyone who was plainly unfit for the position. In order to enforce this demand it told the truth about candidates. This was done without fear or favor. The daily papers of Chicago generally supported the object and methods of the League. Without such support it is difficult to see how its work could have been accomplished. In order to reach the voters, the reports concerning candidates, which were issued from time to time by the League, must be published; and this was done most effectively by the press.

These reports were direct and pointed and often would be libelous, if untrue. Indeed, suits for libel have been brought in quite a number of cases, but not one of them has ever been pressed to trial by the plaintiff.

Whenever a person was presented as candidate for nomination, his career and record were immediately investigated and the facts were printed. If the League had not been honest this course could not have been pursued and the plan must have broken down. But the League was honest, non-partisan and fearless, so that the

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FRANK H. SCOTT.
Vice-President Municipal Voters' League.

public came to respect its statements and to follow the direction in which its reports pointed. Facts and not opinions or advice furnished the strength of its reports. Where the candidate had served in the council, his record on public measures usually furnished a sufficient guide to his acceptance or rejection by the League. In one case a very dangerous councilman had been strong and adroit enough to vote against several bad measures which were passed through the council under his leadership; but more than once in a crisis he had been forced from cover and obliged to take his stand. By this means the League was able to mark him down, and this it did unsparingly. He is no longer a member of the common council of Chicago.

Notable among the public measures before the common council were those relating to street railway privileges, or the traction question. No attempt will here be made to describe the history of street railway legislation; but this subject was at the time of vital interest, and the position of the candidate upon it was deemed crucial. If he had a record, that record was printed. If not, he was requested to state his position, and his statement or refusal to state was printed by the League, together with all the other facts which tended to show fitness, or otherwise, on his part. "By their fruits ye shall know them," was the solid maxim on which the work of the Municipal Voters' League was constructed.

The League platform consists of a declaration of principles and this is submitted to each candidate so that when signed by him it becomes a pledge not to the League but to the people of the city. Upon matters of policy where an honest difference of opinion may exist, no pledge is ever asked.

Little credence was given by the League to protestations of reform and promises of better conduct by those who had proved themselves unreliable or vicious in the past. The common council presented too many temptations for one whose virtue was new and therefore weak. In order to strengthen his good resolutions by the force which habit alone can give, it was deemed requisite such a one should be excluded from so exposed a position into which he otherwise might too rashly venture.

During the earlier years it was possible only to aid in building up an honest minority sufficient to sustain a veto by the mayor of palpably corrupt measures passed by the majority, and it took three years of hard work to do even this. Carter H. Harrison, the mayor of Chicago, stood solidly on the side of honesty upon the traction question, and when it became impossible to pass a corrupt measure over his veto, the tide turned rapidly, and two years later the honest majority comprised nearly two-thirds of the councilmen. The reason for this is evident. The tremendous efforts and the lavish expenditure of money which had been made to secure election, when it was expected by the candidate that if he were successful he could easily recoup himself in multiple measure for his outlay, necessarily ceased when he became convinced there was nothing in it for him. Those who spend money to buy corrupt legislative majorities only pay in the event of success, and the mayor of Chicago stood like a wall when backed by enough members to sustain his veto.

The figures tell the story. Beginning

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in 1896 there were only 22 approved members, against a majority of 46. This was changed to 23 to 45 in 1897, and to 27 to 41 in 1898. Thus far the corrupt element had held on, believing the reform effort would subside, as is too often the case. But three years of hard fighting convinced the most obstinate that the League was there to stay, and the forces of corruption then lost heart. From 1899 there has been an honest majority in the council, until now two-thirds of the aldermen are approved as honest and capable. No spasmodic effort could ever have achieved so great a success. It took four years of constant hard fighting to turn the tide. It was only when the "gang" became convinced that the fight was permanent that they admitted defeat and withdrew from a contest, which they abandoned as hopeless.

The means by which this great result has been brought about seem utterly inadequate. Some effort was made to enlist organized public support in favor of the League and its work, more especially during the early portion of the period covered by it; but then, as now, an executive committee of nine members really was, and has always been, the working force of the League. Even this number, paltry as it seems, much exceeds those who furnished the executive force and direct control for the work which has been done. These have seldom exceeded three or four at the outside at any given time. They have not remained the same, but their names compose a roll of honor, entitled to share in the fame belonging to those who have done well for their country. Of course, they have been supported by financial contributions, from comparatively few persons, however, and full credit should be given for the hearty support accorded to them by the press of Chicago. But, after all, these few men have contributed the ability, energy and effort by which this great task has been accomplished.

WALTER L. FISHER.
Secretary Municipal Voters' League.

EDWIN B. SMITH.
Vice-President Municipal Voters' League 1896-1902.

To insure independence and fidelity in the work of the League no candidate for the city council is permitted to contribute to its funds. No member of the executive committee may become a candidate for any office, nor for at least a year after he has ceased to be such member.

Comfort should be drawn from the fact

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that means apparently so inadequate should have proved sufficient. It shows that the level of honesty on the part of the body of the people was not so low as had been feared. It was only necessary for a few unselfish men clearly to point the way, and the common people heard them gladly. The body of the people do not like to be fooled, and, least of all, by hypocrites, who delude them for private advantage. It was only when the honesty and sincerity of the League had been shown that its influence became decisive.

An important lesson to be drawn from the history of the League is the value of earnest effort rightly directed, although the prospect of immediate success is not sanguine. Pessimism paralyzes. Efforts for brighter and better things succeed.

The desire of the body of the people for good government is the only foundation for the success of the cause of good government; and that foundation does exist.

Highly important is consideration of the fact that the League did not attempt too much. These efforts were directed to a single point. Only a few persons gave their time and attention to its work. It thus became possible to focalize and concentrate its efforts and steadily to maintain the force of its assault in a way which could not have been done under different circumstances. Of course, the League employs an extensive number of persons from time to time to gather information and to verify the results obtained from others, and it now has on hand a large amount of pertinent information relating to the qualifications of candidates for aldermen. But all this has been done by attempting rather to pierce a hole through the wall than to push the wall over by one supreme united effort. Such efforts are generally evanescent. It costs too much in time and effort, to say nothing of money, to raise the crest so high, and the wave of reform thus raised speedily subsides. It would be a mistake to suppose that if the effort were relaxed the common council might not easily slip back again into its old bad condition. "Eternal vigilance is the price of liberty," and it costs to maintain an honest city government.

The names and terms of service of the officers of the league are as follows:

George E. Cole, President.....1896-1898
William Kent, President.....1898-1900
Charles R. Crane, President.....1900-1903
Edwin B. Smith, Vice-President....1896-1902
Frank H. Scott, Vice-President.....1902-1903
Hoyt King, Secretary.....1896-1898
Allen B. Pond, Secretary.....1898-1900
Walter L. Fisher, Secretary.....1900-1903

CHURCHES IN THE COUNTRY come in for severe strictures from the pen of Dr. Nesmith in a recent issue of the *American Journal of Sociology*. Dr. Nesmith writes:

"Idleness, vulgarity and drunkenness seem to be on the increase, while the churches appear to be gradually dying for lack of community interests." Among the causes that have led to this deplorable situation are named "denominationalism, which has subdivided the small community into organizations too weak to do anything but barely to live. * * * Irregular and inefficient ministers, narrow in theology and weak in personality. * * * The lack of means, that has put the church into a begging attitude, depriving it of its spiritual aggressiveness. * * * The preaching of dogma and the emphasis of creed above character. * * * An undue worship of cherished ecclesiastical traditions, to the neglect of rural problems, necessitating waste of energy. These and other causes have led to the failure on the part of the church to study its problems scientifically and to adapt its program of reform along sociological lines instead of the traditional polity of the apostolic fathers." In any true diagnosis of the case, the "apostolic fathers" need to be interpreted largely. Protestantism threw off the yoke of the Fathers of the first three centuries only to assume the yoke of the grandfathers of the last century. The founders of the various sects of Protestantism still appeal with undue force to their successors of this generation who are trying to keep up the sectarian enthusiasm generated by those founders long after they have discarded the old foundations. It is useless to prescribe remedies until there is a frank diagnosis. When the situation is fully recognized, the causes will not be far to seek, and the remedies will promptly suggest themselves. At the present time what Matthew Arnold said of the Bible is painfully true of the churches of Protestantism—the world cannot get along without them, and it cannot get along with them much longer as they are now interpreted and administered.

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A COTTON HARVESTER AT WORK.

COTTON-PICKING MACHINE.—A cotton-picking machine is becoming more and more a necessity of the cotton industry. Negroes are drifting away from the cotton fields. The price of labor is on the increase. Students of the cotton industry think South America, India, Egypt, and Mexico with their cheap labor will be found contesting the cotton producing supremacy of the United States unless cotton-picking machinery comes to the rescue. Thousands of bales of unpicked cotton were plowed under this last spring because there was not enough help to pick it. One man in Louisiana on the Mississippi River so lost 800 bales worth about $40,000.

By the grace of American genius the rescuer is here in the Todd Cotton Harvester, a machine that will pick an acre of cotton in an hour, doing the work of from thirty-five to forty men, leaving the cotton in a better condition to gin than hand-picking leaves it. The machine is pulled over the rows by a team of horses or mules, picking and sacking the cotton as it goes.

The problem of the cotton-picking machine lies in the fact of the uneven ripening of cotton. On the same bush at the same time are blooms, unripe bolls, and bolls fluffed out ready to pick. This ripe cotton must be picked without delay, for, if exposed long to the weather, it deteriorates. The bush, therefore, in picking the ripe cotton, must be so delicately handled as not to injure the bloom or unripe bolls, else would two-thirds of the crop be destroyed in harvesting one-third.

The Todd Cotton Harvester consists of two upright cylinders, twelve inches in diameter, thirty inches high, eight inches apart, fixed on a metal frame which is mounted on two wheels four feet and a half high. From these cylinders project the picking fingers, about four hundred in all. These fingers are five inches long and made of one-half-inch brass tubing. This tubing is slotted so that the delicate ends of the bristle brush, which is fixed in their centers, project slightly, so slightly that they pass easily and delicately over leaves, unripe bolls, and blooms, engaging the fine fiber of the cotton, pulling it gently from the open bolls.

These cylinders, carrying the picking fingers, are so geared that as the wheels are pulled forward along the cotton rows, the cylinders revolve backward at the same rate of motion. This makes an equilibrium insuring gentleness as the bush is passed over, so that there is no dragging or tearing. The power by which the cylinders revolve is at the same time revolving the picking fingers on their own axes. These fingers overlap, but form a

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COTTON-PICKING MACHINE OR COTTON-HARVESTER.

series of turnstiles through which the bushes pass so gently that they are not in the least injured.

When these fingers have gathered the cotton they pass under a series of rapidly revolving cleaning brushes which remove the cotton from the fingers, dropping it into sheet-iron receptacles from whence it is lifted by air suction through pipes and dropped into sacks.

The harvester weighs about 1,800 pounds and is fitted with ball bearings throughout so that it is an easy load for two horses or mules to pull for a day over a field. It has been so pulled over sandy soil where it would have been impracticable to have driven an ordinary mower and reaper. The picking of the cotton crop costs each year about $100,000,000. This is the sphere in which the cotton-picker will operate to the economic gain of the cotton industry, retaining to the United States its supremacy as the greatest cotton producing country in the world.

W. C. CRANDALL.

EMPTYING A COTTON-HARVESTER.

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The Cotton Problem in the South.

BY

FREDERIC AUSTIN OGG, A. M.,

Instructor in History, Indiana University.

"COTTON is still king in the South," declared a Georgia planter in a recent conversation with the writer, "and its rule is even more tyrannical to-day than in the times before the Civil War. If then it kept a few million blacks in slavery, it now goes far toward keeping twice as many whites in an economic dependence and poverty which is only a very small step removed from servitude. Cotton has made the South all that she is, but it is also proving her greatest curse."

This sounds like a wild, harsh judgment, and perhaps in some respects it is such. Yet every man who understands the bitterness of the current economic ills of the South knows that the Georgia planter, in his diagnosis of the situation, was getting within easy speaking distance of the truth. Just now, at least, the "cotton problem" is as vital an issue as even the negro problem. In it are involved all the economic interests of both races—and therefore in a very large measure their social, educational, and moral interests.

The main feature of the plight into which cotton has brought the South is not difficult of discernment. It is a case of a people being betrayed by the physical properties of their country into too great a uniformity of industrial effort. During the last twelve or fifteen years the growth of cotton in the Southern States has advanced far beyond the limit of the profitable. Although the world's demand for cotton is yearly increasing, and although the United States supplies fully 80 per cent. of the more than 15,000,000 bales now annually consumed, the markets are kept so congested by our enormous output that prices are brought miserably low. A careful determination by the United States Department of Agriculture shows that the average cost of producing cotton for the market is 5.27 cents per pound. With the exception of two or three irregular years, the cotton raisers of the United States during the past decade have generally considered themselves fortunate if they received as much as 5 cents for their crops. Whereas in 1870 cotton sold easily at 12 cents a pound, in recent years 4½, 5, 6 and 7 cents were the prevailing prices. This simply means, of course, that year after year the planters disposed of their crops at a positive loss—and without any definite prospect of a turn for the better. It should be said that higher prices have been paid since 1899. The margin of profit is small, when there is any.

But the South seems hopelessly wedded to the cotton industry. All her dearest traditions are bound up with it. Nor is her attachment wholly sentimental. Her soil is best of all adapted to cotton culture. Her laborers are at least thought to be fitted for little else. Hundreds of experiments at diversified farming have only brought her people back to their original occupation. It is raise cotton or do nothing, although it is very clear that no people can achieve permanent prosperity on so narrow a basis as that provided by the production of a single staple commodity. This is the tyranny of which the Georgia planter spoke.

Meanwhile, the Southerners are falling into poverty. The crop-lien system, with all its attendant evils, is becoming more and more widely established. It has become a general custom of planters and tenants to use their credit with local merchants to secure supplies in advance of marketing their crops. Some observers believe that as much as nine-tenths of all the cotton produced is sold in this manner. Not infrequently the crop is mortgaged for its entire value before the seed is sown. The rate of interest on the liens

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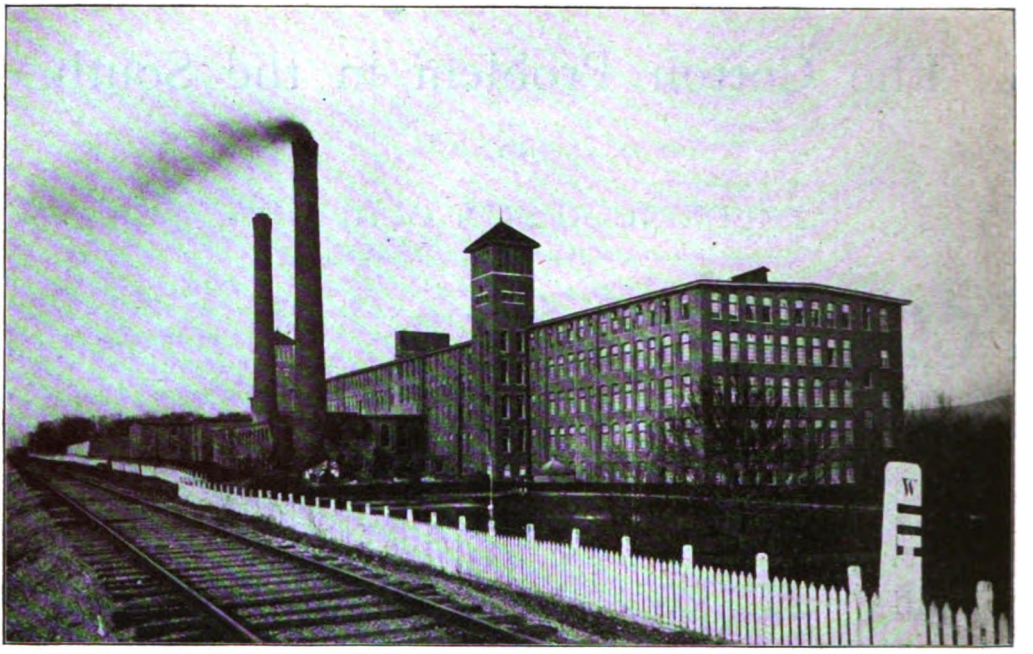

A TYPICAL MODERN SOUTHERN COTTON MILL.
The Dallas Mills, Huntsville, Alabama.

averages near 40 per cent. a year. This system encourages improvidence and all the economic vice that comes from living to-day off the hoped-for gains of to-morrow. Moreover, it robs the planter of his freedom industrially; for, having obtained provisions, clothing, machinery, etc., with the express understanding that they are to be paid for in cotton, there is nothing left for him to do but grow cotton. A further evil is that over-production is rendered almost inevitable. In thousands of cases the merchant can say to the planter, "You have to raise so many acres of cotton this year," and there is no escape. The lower the price, the more cotton he must raise; and the more cotton that is raised, the lower goes the price.

Many and various have been the schemes brought forward for remedying the situation. It has been proposed that by legislative enactment the quantity of cotton grown shall be reduced by some fixed ratio until former prices are restored. Some have suggested that the States put bounties on certain other agricultural products. Attempt was made in Alabama a few years ago to ameliorate the crop-lien system by limiting the amount of liens which could legally be contracted, but no bill on the subject could be made to pass both branches of the legislature. Most of the solutions thus far brought forward are either inadequate or impracticable, or both.

Planters, merchants, and brokers, however, all agree that there is one means whereby substantial and permanent relief may be obtained—and that is by the further development of home manufactures. At present the South suffers a very great economic waste by reason of the fact that so much of her cotton is shipped to foreign countries in the raw state, and therefore in its cheapest form. A bale of raw cotton sold in Savannah at 4 cents brings $20. If that same cotton is made up into cloth its value is about doubled. To what extent the producer shares in this increment of value is still something of a question, but no one can doubt that in the doubling of the South's income on cotton every man who handles it, from planter to cloth-exporter, will gain. The loss of the producer on raw cotton exported is represented by the profit from producer to commission merchant plus the profit between him and the man who ultimately ships plus the profit from the shipper to the European market plus the profit in the brokerage on the Liverpool market. Di-

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rector Beaty, of the Clemson College textile department, tells what cotton manufacturing is capable of doing for South Carolina, as follows: "The average cotton crop in South Carolina is about 1,000,000 bales, or 500,000,000 pounds. Disposing of this 500,000,000 pounds at 7 cents, $35,000,000; five million pounds of white cloth, at 20 cents, $100,000,000; this would bring an increase of $65,000,000 into the State in favor of manufacturing over the sale of the raw products." Mr. Beaty goes on to show that not only would this mean an increased price to the producer, but it would also create among the manufacturing population a brisk market for general farm produce, and so aid the planter indirectly as well as directly.

The most hopeful phase of the Southern industrial situation is that the people have so generally awakened to the possibilities of manufacturing as a means of relief. Says N. F. Thompson, former Secretary Chamber of Commerce, Huntsville, Alabama: "I do not believe that there has ever been such a sentiment for industrial development in the South or any other section of this country as exists throughout the South to-day. The South realizes that it is the acme of her long period of poverty; that she has now an opportunity to recoup herself; and all interests that interfere with that are secondary." The old feeling of indifference, if not actual hostility, to the invasion of Southern soil by Northern capital has mostly passed away. The South understands that she has not the capital requisite for the building up of an extensive manufacturing system, and gracefully welcomes such capital from any outside source. The action of the Alabama legislature in 1897 in exempting from taxation all cotton-mill property for ten years, is typical of the substantial encouragement the Southern States are ready to give to manufacturing enterprises.

It is encouraging to observe the rapidity with which cotton manufacturing in the South has developed, and is developing. Prior to the Civil War such an industry did not exist. Indeed, it scarcely existed before 1880. There are now single establishments in New England paying more for labor and consuming more raw cotton than all the mills in the South twenty-five years ago. Such mills as the South had were small, their machinery antiquated, and their products of the commonest and cheapest sort. The Southern people had not yet got beyond the point of scorning manufacturing as an industry, except for the barest supply of local needs.

The turning point was the Cotton Exposition at Atlanta in 1881. A memorable incident of that occasion was the appearance of the governor of Georgia in a suit of cottonade which had been manufactured on the exposition grounds from cotton picked from the stalk on the morning of the same day. Such an achievement was a revelation to most Southerners. Having just been wrestling with overproduction and consequent low prices of cotton, scarcity of money, and the high prices asked for clothing purchased in the North, they grasped with much eagerness the suggestion so forcibly made by the Georgia governor; namely, that the South begin to do her own manufacturing. The tide of public opinion turned swiftly in this direction, and the little less than marvelous history of the growth of Southern cotton manufactures took its real beginning.

The rate of this growth is shown in the following table, taken from the New York *Commercial and Financial Chronicle*. It indicates the number of spindles in Southern mills and their consumption of cotton, in alternate years since 1880.

YEAR	Number Spindles	Bales of Cotton Used
1881–1882	680,000	238,000
1883–1884	1,110,000	334,000
1885–1886	1,200,000	340,000
1887–1888	1,177,901	443,373
1889–1890	1,554,000	526,856
1891–1892	1,938,524	681,471
1893–1894	2,167,242	723,329
1895–1896	2,770,284	915,810
1897–1898	3,574,754	1,227,939
1899–1900	4,298,188	1,447,775

For purposes of comparison the following table, showing the geographical distribution of cotton manufacturing establishments in the United States at each of the last three censuses, will be helpful:

Geographical Divisions	1900	1890	1880
New England States	332	402	439
Middle States	225	239	139
Southern States	400	239	161
Western States	16	25	17
Total	973	905	756

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AN EXHIBITION PLANT AT ATLANTA, GEORGIA.
The men are handling "roundlap" bales of raw cotton. The shipping mark "Atag" represents Atlanta, Ga.

It should be said that the decrease in manufacturing establishments in the New England and Middle States between 1890 and 1900 is more apparent than real, being caused almost entirely by the consolidation of companies. But the notable thing is the increase in such establishments in the South. "The growth of the cotton manufacturing industry in the South," says the Census Report of 1900, "is the one great fact in the history of that region during the past ten years." The increase in the number of Southern mills from 1880-1890 was 48.4 per cent.; from 1890-1900, 67.4 per cent. The increase has been not merely in the number of mills, but also more than proportionately in the number of spindles.

In 1880 this number was 422,807; in 1890 it was 1,195,256; and in 1900, 3,791,654. The average number per mill is now 10,651.

Practically this entire increase has occurred in four States—North Carolina, South Carolina, Alabama, and Georgia. In 1900, 355 of the 400 Southern cotton mills were located in these States. The Carolinas now consume in their factories more than half the cotton produced within their borders, and Georgia and Alabama more than one-third of their entire output.

Of the 3,516,080 bales of cotton consumed in the United States in 1900, the South used 1,477,775 and New England 1,719,622. The amount of capital invested in New England cotton factories in this same year was $272,668,914, as compared with $243,153,249 in 1890—a gain of 12.1 per cent. In the South the amount of capital invested in 1900 was $124,532,864, as against $53,827,303 ten years before—a gain of 131.4 per cent. The number of wage earners employed in the cotton mills of New England in 1900 was 162,294; in those of the South, 97,494.

As yet there has been little attempt in the South to manufacture the highest grades of cottons. The Oriental market for cheaper cottons is expanding so rapidly that the Southern manufacturers will probably long continue to have all that they can do to meet this demand. Few cottons of the coarser grades are now produced in New England, although many New England operators have built branch mills in the Southern States for such production. The bulk of cotton goods sent

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under New England brands to China and Japan are really manufactured in the South, and by Southern labor.

The production of cheaper goods does not indicate any lack of enterprise or progressiveness on the part of Southern manufacturers. It is worthy of note that the Southern mills are generally quite the equals of those in the North in respect to equipment, and in not a few cases far superior. The lesson that only the best machinery can give paying results has been effectually learned. There is no industry in which the profits are more directly proportioned to the perfection and speed of machinery than cotton-spinning. The Southern mills, being mostly of recent construction, have been built and fitted up on thoroughly modern plans, so that they are, on the whole, the most up-to-date in the world. The first cotton mill in America to adopt electricity for motive power was in the South. There is a mill in Huntsville, Alabama, which affords an excellent illustration of Southern inventive enterprise. It has been provided with a gin attachment, so that when the farmer drives up with his load of cotton fresh from the field, all that is necessary is to connect a certain automatic device with the wagon, and the cotton is not touched again until it comes out finished cloth at the other end of the mill. This establishment has been paying a dividend of 62 per cent. In general it may be said that while some ill-advised investments have been made, the profits accruing to the Southern manufacturer of cotton goods exceed those which prevail in New England. Proximity to the raw material proves a decided advantage.

While the growth of Southern cotton manufactures has been phenomenal, it yet represents but a beginning. As long as the South sends 68 per cent. of her raw cotton to foreign manufacturers, and more than half of the remainder to the North, she cannot expect the full measure of profits which accrue to a manufacturing people. The price of cotton remains low because there is still an over-production. The growth of manufactures has not as yet drawn an adequate proportion of the people from agricultural pursuits.

There is reason to believe that the South understands yet but vaguely the character of the service which manufacturers can render her. It is not merely that the cotton grower shall receive a somewhat higher price for his product. Indeed, if the output of cotton continues to expand as it has done in recent decades, there is little to hope for in this direction; over-production will nullify the tendency of home manufactures to raise prices of the raw material. As my Georgia friend remarked: "Cotton manufactures must aid the cotton grower primarily by making fewer of him." That is, the plantation owners must be enabled—even enticed—to become something other than cotton raisers. The development of the cotton manufacturing industry must create a diversified market and so stimulate diversified farming.

No one needs be told that this is exactly what the growth of manufacturing in any region may be expected to do. A large factory population must eventually mean a brisk demand for food products. When the Southern farmer finds that grain, vegetables, fruits, and meats sell readily at paying rates he will put forth new effort to produce these things. And if the inducements are large enough, he will succeed. It is chiefly through such a broadening of agricultural enterprises that the tyranny of King Cotton can be broken and the emancipation of the Southern farmer assured. The industrial life of any people or section must grow stagnant unless it is preserved by a wholesome degree of diversity.

DRINK, Movement in Germany Against.—Germany has what may be called the beginning of a temperance movement. German publicists are waking up to a realizing sense of the enormity of the drink traffic and its effects on the German people. The yearly consumption of beer averages fifty-seven gallons a head throughout the German Empire, an increase of nearly fifty per cent. since 1882 (when the average consumption was thirty-eight gallons). This increase has caused the Emperor serious concern, and time and again in his public speeches he has sounded a warning note. Bismarck saw the extent of the evil and was impressed by the need of some measures calculated to check the drink habit among students and workingmen. Last year the Prussian Minister of Education, Dr.

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Studt, strongly urged the national school authorities to take part in "the struggle against the pernicious evil of drunkenness," and this year a decree has been passed by the imperial ministry of education, ordering the teaching of the elementary principles of temperance in the public schools of Germany. Along this line the Good Templars and the German Woman's Abstinence Union have labored earnestly, and they have accomplished something in arousing the temperance sentiment among the people at large. It is also said that "abstinence-education is now the socialists' watchword."

The ninth annual International Anti-Alcohol Congress, which met at Bremen in April, gave a great stimulus to the anti-alcoholic propaganda. Dr. Delbrück, the president of the Congress, cited statistics showing the injurious effects of excessive beer drinking in Germany. Of 149 patients treated in a north German private asylum for drunkards, 41 had been alcoholized by drinking spirits, 30 by wine drinking, and 78 by the excessive consumption of beer. A Berlin doctor said that one-half of the men liable to military service were physically unfit, and he thought this was largely due to alcoholism.

The German Association for the Investigation of Mental Disease found that out of 100 cases of mental disorder in state asylums 73 per cent. are the result of intemperance. Of the 340 insane persons who killed themselves last year 298 were drunkards.

According to Count Haeseler, until lately a commander of the German army, abstinent soldiers best resist cold and fatigue. The German military authorities are trying to stop the excessive drinking of intoxicating liquors in the army. The sale of brandy to soldiers has been prohibited in Lorraine and Hesse-Nassau. In the thirty soldiers' homes and in similar institutions for sailors no alcoholic drinks are served.

For many years the Germans have scorned the temperance idea. They are constitutionally opposed to prohibition, but they realize that something must be done to restrict the consumption of alcohol. The Emperor and many public men approve the movement that has been initiated in Germany under the title of *Deutscher Verein für Gasthaus-Reform,* whose object is to place the traffic in control of dintinguished and public-spirited companies that derive no profit from the sale of intoxicating liquors.

EGGS PRESERVED.—German papers state that it is possible to keep eggs fresh for any length of time by simply immersing them in a 10 per cent solution of silicate of soda, commonly called "liquid glass." This produces the formation of a coating which renders the eggs perfectly air-tight. The eggs so treated retain their fresh taste for many months. The best proof of the efficacy of this treatment has been furnished by the fact that such eggs, after having been kept for a whole year, were hatched, and the chickens were strong and healthy.

The preserving solution is best prepared by dissolving 1 pound of liquid glass in 4 quarts of cold water. The eggs are then immersed in this solution, which should be kept in a glazed earthenware vessel, and the eggs are kept in the solution for a short time. If one of these preserved eggs is to be boiled, the shell must be first perforated in order to prevent cracking.

ELY.—Professor R. T. Ely of Wisconsin University, the well-known authority on economics, entitles his last work "Studies in the Evolution of Industrial Society." It begins with a historical survey of industrial evolution, and then proceeds to discuss current problems. Prof. Ely can see only one alternative before the present tendency, that between socialism and social reform. The trusts are creating private monopolies which one more step can convert into public monopolies, in other words, socialism. But Prof. Ely opposes monopoly of both kinds, and advocates governmental regulation of private industries. Yet he favors governmental ownership of telegraph and telephone lines, and is doubtful about railroads only because of the danger of sectional conflicts over rates. Within certain wide limits he also favors municipal ownership of public utilities. His underlying principle is a social solidarity which takes a middle path between the extremes of anarchy and socialism, both of which destroy liberty. Industrial power may be concentrated, but the wealth lying back of it should and can be diffused rather than concentrated.

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GALALITH, OR MILK-STONE, MANUFACTURES.—At the Hygienic Milk Supply (Hygienische Milchversorgung) Exhibition, which was lately held at Hamburg, the Vereinigten Gummiwaren-Fabriken, of Harburg and Vienna, exhibited a number of objects which seemingly had nothing whatsoever to do with hygienic milk supply. There were shown, nicely arranged in glass boxes, combs seemingly made of horn; cigar holders, with amber-colored mouthpieces; knives and forks, with handles similar in appearance to ebony; ferrules for umbrellas and sticks, and balls, rings, chess figures, dominoes, etc.; also a small table with an inlaid marble slab, and finally a number of thick slabs and staves with every imaginable variation of marble colors but of considerably less weight than real marble. These objects were made of "galalith"—*i. e.,* milk-stone.

Skimmed milk, in spite of its many valuable qualities, has so far been little used; it contains a considerable portion of nutritious matter—*i. e.,* 1 liter (1.05 quarts) of skimmed milk is of about equal value to a quarter of a pound of meat. It is by far too little appreciated as a cheap food for the people, hence what the German peasant can not sell to milk-sugar factories or use for the manufacture of cheese is given to cattle and pigs as food. The principal albumenoid substance of skimmed milk, the casein, is the raw material out of which the new product, galalith, is manufactured. More than fifteen years ago the idea was originated to manufacture various articles like buttons, handles, ornamental plates, and colored pencils out of casein. The inventor took out a patent for a manufacturing process, which is described as follows:

Fresh casein— *i. e.,* ordinary or dried curds—were dissolved in hot soap water; to this solution the required coloring ingredients and a metallic salt were added, and a firm substance consisting of casein and metallic soap was produced, which, by drying and pressing into molds, could be given any desired shape. It is to be supposed that the inventor had found out by continued trials that casein by addition of a metallic salt becomes brittle and softens easily in water. With a view to counteracting this latter drawback soap was added, but the articles produced thus were soft and brittle, and the invention was not a success. The chemical factory of Schering at Berlin then invented a process, the idea of which was to make casein insoluble by the addition of formaldehyde, but the disadvantage of this invention was that the articles produced distended considerably in water.

The inventors of galalith succeeded, after many troublesome trials, in doing away with the deficiencies of former methods and in using the good that was in the former ones, for the working out of an entirely new process. Their first aim was to make an insoluble union of casein by the addition of salts and acids. The substance thus obtained was dephlegmated and dried, and, finally, by the addition of formaldehyde, the galalith was obtained. To produce, for instance, a material similar to ebony, which could be used for handles of table knives, they proceeded as follows: Dissolved casein was given a dark color by the addition of soot and, with the help of a metallic salt, "acetate of lead," a slate-colored precipitate was obtained. This was mixed with water and the thin pap filled into a cloth stretched over a frame. The water becoming absorbed by the cloth, the pap contracted into a uniform, firm, and dark mass; this was placed in a solution of formaldehyde and, after being dried, a product resulted which in luster and color was equal to ebony. In this way a raw material is produced which the inventors have protected by numerous patents.

An advantage of the new product as compared with celluloid is the fact that it does not ignite so easily and is entirely odorless. Trials have proved that even when kept for weeks in water it does not distend more than the best quality of buffalo horn; after one month it had not soaked in more than 20 per cent. of water. Of late trials have been made to produce, by the addition of vegetable oils, an insulating material for electrotechnical purposes.

GERMAN PRISON FARE.—The present food fare for prisoners in Germany is said not to meet the minimum requirements of a rational nutrition. In course of time observation has shown such severe objections to the condition of prisoners that a change appears necessary. In order

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to obtain a scientific and economical basis for a suitable reform a commission has been appointed, at the instance of the well-known expert in prison matters, Chief Privy Councilor Dr. Krohne, for the purpose of consulting with reference to a more rational system of feeding prisoners. Among the commissioners is the celebrated chemist, Koenig, the author of well-known tables of food articles. The report of this commission will be submitted to the several federal governments of Germany.

HEBREW MILLIONAIRES in America number 115, according to *The Jewish World.* There are, in New York City, 38; in Chicago, 13; in Philadelphia, 5; Boston, 1; San Francisco, 10; Cincinnati, 6; St. Louis, 2; Brooklyn, 1. Very few, if any, of the names on the list belong to the contingent of Russian Jews that have immigrated to the United States during the present generation. These Jewish millionaires represent many lines of business, banking, packing, manufacturing, distilling, real estate, lumber, and dealing in various lines of goods. The majority, as indicated above, are in large cities. Some are in small places like Waverly, Iowa, and Marquette, Michigan. For the most part, however, they congregate on the Atlantic coast. The financial center of the country is still in the East.

HENLEY, WILLIAM ERNEST.—One of the foremost poets and critics of the English-speaking world died at Woking, Sunday, July 12, having been born in Gloucester August 23, 1849. Since his death much controversy has arisen over the relative place to be assigned him as a poet, but his position as a critic seems to be secure. In addition to the labors performed in the world of letters in these several capacities, Henley was widely known as an editor, both of journals and of a number of definitive editions of the prose and poetry of other men, and as a successful playwright in collaboration with the late Robert Louis Stevenson. Still another service to literature must be acknowledged in the large number of young men he brought to public notice during the years of his active editorship, which include 1877 and 1878 on *London,* from 1882 to 1886 on the *Magazine of Art,* from 1888 to 1893 on the *National Observer,* and from 1893 to 1898 on *The New Review.*

It is unquestionably as a playwright that Henley is best known in this country, where his and Stevenson's *Deacon Brodie* attained popular success. This was followed at intervals by *Beau Austin, Admiral Guinea,* and *Robert Macaire,* of which the first-named is an entirely worthy piece of literature. But its failure to catch the ear of the public, and the lack of attention paid its successors, forced him to turn his attention to other fields, and the scanty number of English dramatists of rank was diminished to its permanent loss.

It is a similar failure to appreciate his merits as a poet which must be brought forward to account for the scantiness of his poetical remains. After many years of writing for the English periodicals, eleven of them, as he himself records, being years of extreme discouragement, he published *A Book of Verses* in 1888, a collection of his contributions to various journals. It was welcomed in England as the work of a man of genius, but for some inscrutable reason has never attracted the attention it deserves in America. Henley had been a sufferer from disease through many years, and finally found, in 1873, that an operation of a dangerous character was necessary to preserve his life. He accordingly entered the Old Infirmary at Edinburgh, and remained there until the spring of 1875. A permanent literary memorial of his stay in hospital is embodied in the first chapter of this first book of his, unique in theme and treatment; while his discharge was followed by the composition of his best-known poem, reading thus:

"Out of the night that covers me,
  Black as the pit from pole to pole,
I thank whatever gods may be
  For my unconquerable soul.

"In the fell clutch of circumstance
  I have not winced nor cried aloud.
Under the bludgeonings of chance
  My head is bloody, but unbowed.

"Beyond this place of wrath and tears
  Looms but the Horror of the shade,
And yet the menace of the years
  Finds and shall find me unafraid.

"It matters not how strait the gate,
  How charged with punishments the scroll,
I am the master of my fate:
  I am the captain of my soul."

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In addition to a number of essays in old French forms of great delicacy and beauty, and a display of humor of unusual penetration, the book shows a willingness to experiment in *vers libre* which has added to the resources of English poetry. In 1892 a second poetical volume, *The Song of the Sword,* was issued, and met with a hearty reception. The name of this latter work was changed to *London Voluntaries* when a second edition was called for the following year, giving rise to some confusion. In 1897 a revision was made of his published works in verse under the general title of *Poems,* with a preface by the author. In 1898 Henley wrote a dozen quatorzains, published with Mr. William Nicholson's drawings under the title of *London Types.* In 1900 this was followed by a pamphlet of patriotic verse, *For England's Sake,* written under the pressure of the war and in encouragement of British arms in South Africa. It possesses no marked literary merit. *Hawthorn and Lavender,* brought out in 1901, contains as much of this as Henley himself thought worth preserving, only two titles, all of the matter of *London Types,* the prologues to *Beau Austin* and *Admiral Guinea,* the prologue written by Henley for the *Richard Savage* of James M. Barrie and H. B. Marriott Watson, and a number of new lyrics, a few of them in the irregular measure of the poet's earlier days, but many in more formal meter, like the following:

"Gray hills, gray skies, gray lights,
And still, gray sea—
O fond, O fair,
The Mays that were
When the wild days and wilder nights
Made it like heaven to be!

"Gray head, gray heart, gray dreams—
O, breath by breath,
Night-tide and day
Lapse gentle and gray,
As to a murmur of tired streams,
Into the haze of death."

Only two books of formal criticism have been published by Henley, both bearing the title of *Views and Reviews,* the one dealing with literature in 1890 and the one with art and sculpture in 1901. In addition to these, a great deal of work was done on the fine edition of *Tudor Translations,* on the *Centenary* Burns, in collaboration with Mr. T. F. Henderson, the terminal essay by Henley finding a separate publication in 1898, on *The Works of Lord Byron,* on *The Poetry of Wilfrid Blunt* in collaboration with George Wyndham, and on *The Edinburgh Folio* of Shakespeare.

WILLIAM E. HENLEY.
The noted English author.

The University of St. Andrews honored Henley with the honorary degree of doctor of laws for his services to literature, the poet-critic being without university training. He married Miss Anna Boyle in 1878, and she survives him. Though a constant sufferer from incurable illness, Henley shows little or no traces of his personal sufferings in his work. What is known as his attack on the literary reputation of his friend, Robert Louis Stevenson, is regarded by many as emanating from personal spleen, Henley's detractors forgetting the stanza that had Dr. Johnson's approval:

"When none shall rail, and every lay
Devote a wreath to thee;
That day (for come it will), that day
Shall I lament to see"—

and forgetting, too, that Henley, fresh from his consideration of Byron, only wished to preserve his collaborator from the inevitable penalty of over-praise and consequent reaction.

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ILLINOIS BAR ASSOCIATION.—On July 22-23 the twenty-seventh annual convention of the Illinois State Bar Association was held in Chicago. Attention was given almost exclusively to the vital problems of the day that depend upon enforcing obedience to law. In a resolution, which was adopted without a dissenting vote, the ban of the association was put on lynching and all mob uprisings in the name of justice.

Assistant State's Attorney Albert C. Barnes aroused much interest by his paper on "The State's Attorney's Office of Cook County." After discussing at length the obstacles to the speedy disposition of cases, the indeterminate sentence law, the difficulties of impaneling jurors, and the delays in imposing sentences, he concluded by laying great emphasis on the law of conspiracy. Illustrating his point by reference to a recent conspiracy case in Illinois of great importance, he declared that, rightly interpreted, the law of conspiracy is one of the strongest barriers to-day against the rights of the people. "One of the greatest dangers that confront society to-day is the spoliation of the rights of suffrage by conspiracy between election officials. What relief injunctions are to the civil law, the law of conspiracy is to the criminal law. It is the great instrument with which the people must in the future, as in the past, deal with concerted assaults upon their rights."

James De Witt Andrews, a law writer of New York, in delivering the report of the committee on legal education, advocated a universal system of teaching law, in which both the text-book and the study of cases should be given equal attention. He deprecated the growth of specialization in the preliminary law studies, calling this tendency a menace to the dignity of the profession. Pointing out the advantages to be derived from the study of both text-books and cases, he declared that a broad, general plan of teaching legal principles should govern.

On the ground that a reconstruction and readjustment of criminal codes are demanded by society, Elmer E. Rogers introduced a resolution in favor of establishing, in the department of justice at Washington, a laboratory for the study of criminals, paupers, and defectives.

Judge Murray F. Tuley, the retiring president of the association, gave an address on "Maxims of Equity." Speaking first of equity as the highest type of law, the morality of which "is broader, purer, more refined than that which governs the ordinary actions of men," he continued: "We are at this time confronted with questions of right and equity, arising almost daily out of the complications of capital and labor, for which no system of jurisprudence, neither of law nor equity, can furnish a remedy; where even the efforts of 'government by injunction' are found to be inadequate, and we are forced to resort to that law of nature mentioned by Dawson, that where there are two contending parties they should refer the question of right to the arbitration of a third. But when the principles of equity are applied to the solution of these problems, let the judge not lose sight of the fact that principle, not precedent, should govern his decision."

Edwin M. Ashcraft made a strong address on "The Ethics of the Profession." He enforced his point in the following terms: "This is the time of all others when the future of this country depends more on the respect, confidence, and esteem in which the ministers of the law are held by the people than on any other thing. If the masses have confidence in being able to obtain justice with promptness and certainty in the courts, there will be little anarchy, few mobs, and a decrease in the number of riots. Unless this confidence can be established and maintained the future of our country is fearful to contemplate. All mobs, riots, every act of anarchy, each attempt on the part of the people to take the law into their own hands, and every sentiment of disrespect for law is a menace to the profession, and should be discouraged by its members."

Mr. Ashcraft's address will appear in a future issue of THE WORLD TO-DAY, as will the paper read by Mr. Robert W. Hilscher on "Social Development and Law." Mr. Hilscher amplified the thought quoted from Mr. Ashcraft. Hilscher's paper was alluded to in the discussion of personal injury litigation.

Another feature of the session was considerable individual discussion of the labor crisis in Chicago, and all the lawyers that expressed an opinion agreed that the injunction is invaluable to prevent crime.

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ILLUMINANT DISCOVERED.—An important discovery has been made by the well-known German chemist, Hermann Blau, of Bavaria. His method is to separate, by a process of rectification, the methane and hydrogen from the other constituents of oil gas, collecting the same in steel receivers subject to a pressure of 40 atmospheres, whereby he converts it into liquid form. A comparison of the cost of the various illuminating materials is shown in a table drawn up by Fischer in his Chemical Manual (1900):

Per 100 heat units—	Cost
With petroleum burners:	*Cents*
Flat	3.14
Round	1.73
With incandescent alcohol	2.16
With coal gas	1.06
With electricity	6.49
With acetylene	2.14 to 3.81

With the liquid gas made according to Blau's method, the cost is reduced to 1.5 cents, including freight. As seen from the above table, this new illuminating material compares very favorably in cost with all others. The ease with which it can be handled and the beauty of its light should make it preferable where a lighting material is wanted as a substitute for petroleum, alcohol, or acetylene. As Blau's light is much more easily turned on or off, it is certainly more convenient. Its low cost and its beautiful color may give it preference even to the electric light. It will undoubtedly open a new field of industry and should be promptly looked into as an enterprise and investment for Americans.

On the 24th of December, 1902, a test was had for the first time to produce the liquid gas. The trial showed how practical and very simple the process of preparation was. It has since been decided to erect an oil-gas furnace and to reconstruct the rectifying apparatus in accordance with the practical observations obtained by the experiments of last December. A new test has recently been made and shows a most marked improvement and a remarkable productive power in every respect. It was also found that by the addition of a considerable amount of tar, which is in no wise detrimental, a beautiful yellow color was given to the gas. A test tube filled with the liquid gas needed only the warmth of the hand to cause it to effervesce. It also effervesced when poured upon a metallic plate and on water. In the latter case a crust of ice was formed. Its odor is pyroligneous aromatic. The concentration amounted to 537 grams instead of 550 grams per liter under a pressure of 40 atmospheres. The specific gravity, when in a gaseous state, was 1.26 (taking air at 1.0); absolute weight, 1.03.

INDUSTRIAL EDUCATION IN GERMANY.—The status of the commercial school in Germany was set forth in the July issue of THE WORLD TO-DAY; it is the purpose of this article to treat in like manner that even more important institution, which has supplanted the old apprentice system; namely, the industrial school. This country will yet have much to learn from Germany in the matter of industrial education, even after it will have come more generally to appreciate the necessity of this kind of school. Though Saxony has the most highly developed system of industrial schools in Germany, yet so great is the German interest in this kind of education that the time is not far off when the whole Empire will be dotted with schools just as efficient as those of Saxony. It is interesting to note that, in connection with the present school conflict in England, that country is watching closely the development of technical education in Germany. About July 1, Lord Rosebery, in a letter to the board of directors appointed to carry out the plan of building a technical school in London similar to that in Berlin-Charlottenburg, gave prominence to the fact that ambitious young Englishmen desirous of obtaining a good technical education were obliged to attend the technical universities in America and Germany. English industries suffered greatly in the past and were still suffering from the neglect to provide means for such training.

The marvelous expansion of German trade, growing out of the tremendous impulse to commerce and industry received from the success of the Franco-Prussian war, has naturally created a necessity for industrial as well as commercial education. The ready appreciation of this necessity by the Germans has resulted in the development of a system of education that has directed all the available powers of

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scientific knowledge and research upon industrial problems. So close together have science and industry been brought in Germany that the university there has been in a measure displaced from its pre-eminent position in the educational world; that is, the classical foundations now share their supremacy with institutions of a more modern growth. In the humanities the universities still maintain their old high rank as training schools; but it is in the technical high schools that the keen business men with sound scientific knowledge are to-day receiving their training. Chemists and civil, mechanical, and mining engineers are receiving an educational training that brings them to the problems of business life with practical and technical knowledge. To the love of research is joined the power of initiation—the qualities that go to the building up of new industries and the constant expansion of old ones.

The technical high schools are essentially modern institutions. They did not exist before the nineteenth century, nor was their effectiveness developed until within the last generation. Established as trade schools for the study of special subjects, they have widened their operations until they stand to-day for the application of scientific knowledge in all directions to the special requirements of commercial industry. There are now nine of these technical high schools—at Aix la Chapelle, Berlin, Brunswick, Darmstadt, Dresden, Hanover, Karlsruhe, Munich, and Stuttgart. Two more are building in Breslau and Danzig. In these schools nearly 15,000 students are now receiving an education directly fitting them for participation in great industrial concerns in the capacity most calculated to promote expansion and progress. Many facts combine to prove the general opinion of the completeness and value of this training. In a period of thirty years the number of technical high school students has quadrupled. Out of a total of 15,000 students not less than one-sixth represent the youth of foreign nations. This is a striking testimony to the excellence of the institutions.

The course of training in these schools is severe, and follows only upon a severe preliminary education. No student is admitted as fully qualified who has not passed through the complete nine-year course of the classical gymnasium or realschule, which accomplishment would entitle a student to admission with full standing to the third year of any first-class American university. In each of these cases a preliminary three-year course at a preparatory school has been taken, so that it would be impossible to enter the technical high schools much before the age of eighteen, that being the age of admission fixed. In addition to the preparatory educational training, chemists are required to have worked for three years in an apothecary's establishment; architects must have completed a year of practical work at their profession; and engineering students must have passed the same period in mechanical work in some engineering factory. The usual course of training extends over a period of four years. Every conceivable branch of technical and practical science bearing upon the subject chosen comes within the range of study.

The requirements of the various schools as to attendance upon lectures are elastic and there is very little compulsion upon students. There is little call for it, because, in the main, those who elect to undergo the course of training are aware of its severity, and are willing to devote themselves to work and study. Discipline, therefore, is easily maintained, though there are provisions for punishment ranging from reprimand to imprisonment and expulsion. In this regard and for the rest, the life and habits of the students are much the same as at the universities. The year of enforced military service is taken either before or during the technical high-school training. This serves to defer the age at which the German youth completes his education, and he usually attains the age of twenty-four or twenty-five before quitting the schools.

The technical high schools impose very light fees. Although the same vary, it is probable that the average annual expenditure for laboratory work, books, and examinations does not exceed $75. This, coupled with the fact that there are practically no endowments, entails a considerable charge upon the State, both as a yearly supplement to the yearly fees and for items for extraordinary expenditure, such as the erection and equipment of buildings and laboratories and the provision for

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appliances. This cost, however, is cheerfully borne, in view of the fact that in remunerative results there is no department of national outlay that can be so directly traced. In one direction alone—in the vast chemical industries of Germany—may be witnessed an actual creation, not merely a diversion, of trade amounting to many millions annually. Perhaps in no other industry in the world can the intimate connection between applied scientific knowledge and the growth of industries be so completely demonstrated.

In Saxony there are 287 industrial schools, or one industrial school to every 14,641 people; the population of the Kingdom being 4,202,216. These schools are divided into five classes: Advanced industrial schools; special industrial schools; industrial schools for drawing and painting: industrial schools for women, girls, and children; and industrial primary or continuation schools. None of these are what we have called technical high schools, though the curricula of the advanced industrial schools cover much of the same ground.

There are 12 advanced industrial schools in Saxony, located in the following cities: Chemnitz, Plauen, Hainichen, Dresden, Mittweida, Zwickau, Leipzig, Limbach, and Bautzen.

The following curriculum of the advanced industrial school in Chemnitz not only speaks for itself, but is a fair example by which to judge the others. It is divided into five distinct minor schools known as the industrial academy, architecture, machine construction, dyeing, and industrial drawing departments. The industrial academy furnishes four courses—namely, for mechanics, chemists, architects, and electricians. The conditions of admission demand of the student sufficient education to be in possession of the certificate which entitles him to one year's service in the army. In addition to this he must show evidence that he has passed two years in some factory, acquiring practical knowledge of the branch in which he desires to theoretically perfect himself in the industrial school. The course of study for mechanics is as follows:

REQUIRED.

German language and literature.	Architectural drawing.
Mathematics.	Political economy.
Surveying.	Geometry.
Chemistry.	Physics.
Mechanics.	Metallurgy.
Machine drawing and sketching.	Machine architecture.
Free-hand drawing.	Machine construction.

ELECTIVE.

French.	Sanitary arrangements.
Bookkeeping.	Arithmetic.
Weaving.	Spinning.
English.	
Beer brewing.	

The courses in the other departments are similar to this one.

Of special industrial schools there are about 150 in Saxony, which are training young men to become expert workmen in the following trades and industries:

Trade or Industry.	Number of Schools.
Architects	11
Barbers	14
Tinmen	3
Brewers	1
Printers	3
Bookbinders	2
Decorators	1
Druggists	3
Butchers	1
Waiters	3
Tanners	1
Firemen	1
Wood carvers	6
Confectioners	1
Painters and varnishers	3
Musicians	26
Millers	1
Bead goods and dress trimmings	4
Locksmiths	7
Tailors	17
Chimney builders	1
Instruction in penmanship, etc.	4
Shoemakers	3
Toymakers	3
Lacemakers	2
Paper hangers	1
Watchmakers	1
Weavers	23
Total	151

The following curriculum of the tin and metal industrial school in Aue, this consular district, is characteristic of what all these schools are: Arithmetic, Drawing, Physics, Bookkeeping, Geometry, Sketching, Mechanics, Correspondence, German, Modeling, Chemistry.

The students devote twenty-eight hours each week to practical work in the tin and metal workshops of the school and factories of the city.

There are 32 industrial schools for drawing and painting in Saxony, namely,

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3 for painters in Dresden and 29 for industrial drawers, etc., in different cities in Saxony Eighteen are connected with as many public schools throughout the country. The industrial drawing school in Eibenstock enjoys a good reputation. The sample exhibits of the school are exceptionally fine. The most exquisite designs in hand-made lace curtains and bead and silk trimmings in ancient and modern fashions are so tastefully arranged that they cannot fail in making a deep impression upon the apprentices, who see them almost daily.

Of industrial schools for women, girls and children there are 21 in Saxony; namely, 19 for industrial education in general and 2 for lacemaking. One of the best schools of this class is in Schneeberg.

There are in Saxony 44 industrial primary or continuation schools. They are intended to give boys and girls who have completed the public school course a chance to prepare themselves in a general way for some trade or particular branch of industry without the express intention of following the same.

In 1882 there were only 22 industrial schools in Saxony; to-day there are 287. This increase tells its own story.

Although no other German state has so elaborate and complete a system of industrial schools as Saxony, yet in some cities of most of the other states of the Empire much progress has been made in this direction. For instance, the Crefeld industrial school for textiles is one of the best in Germany. The object of this school is to prepare young men by practical and theoretical instruction to become managers and manufacturers, as well as thorough experts in the textiles produced in Crefeld. The subjects taught are bookkeeping, spinning, weaving and drawing. The course lasts two years. The city donated the lot and $35,000 toward erecting the school building. In Spremburg, Guben and Kottbus, similar schools for the weaving industry were established many years ago.

At Iserlohn an industrial school was established in 1879 for the metal and bronze industry of that city and vicinity. The pupil receives theoretical instruction at school and actual practice in factory and workshops. When these workshops were organized in connection with this school, some fifteen manufacturers of Iserlohn consented to furnish the necessary raw materials free of charge for a period of five years. This donation in reality amounted to $2,500. The state also furnished the needed machinery at a cost of $4,000. It is also arranged that young men permanently employed in the factories may take evening courses in drawing and in the theory of manufacture.

There is an industrial school in Heinsberg which teaches young apprentices how to make baskets, and how to braid and twist materials for making baskets. There are three masters, each having about twenty-five boys in charge. This institution is suggestive of what might be done in the United States in the way of establishing schools for perpetuating the art of making Indian baskets, as well as other Indian goods.

Industrial schools for building and architectural purposes have been founded in Hildesheim, Siegen, Breslau, Sulza, Hoxter, Idstein, and a large number of other small towns; but the best schools in this line are in Berlin and Holzmünden. For the most part they are under the supervision of and receive subventions from the state.

For the purpose of teaching apprentices every subject that has anything to do with the building and repairing of railway cars, etc., the Prussian State railways have established industrial schools in Elberfeld, Berlin, Königsberg, Frankfort-on-the-Oder, Potsdam, Halberstadt, Breslau, and many other cities. In every workshop connected with these schools there are from eight to ten apprentices, so that the total number considerably exceeds 1,000. Each apprentice in these schools receives a remuneration of twenty cents a day, which is put out at interest until the end of the three years' apprenticeship, when he comes into possession of both principal and interest. Württemberg, Baden, Hessen, and Bavaria are also exceedingly well supplied with industrial schools, representing many lines of work. The industrial schools of Germany, taking the Empire as a whole, cover the following trades and industries:

Weaving.	Cabinetmaking.
Finishing.	Basketmaking.

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Metal.
Zinc.
Jewelry.
Lace.
Mechanics.
Porcelain.
Engravers.
Printing.
Blacksmiths.
Architects.
Shipbuilding.
Spinning.
Wood carving.
Masonry.
Paper.
Bronze.
Goldsmith.
Ivory carving.
Dress trimmings.
Brushes.
Shoemakers.
Lithographers.
Firemen.
Locksmiths.
Iron.
Fisheries.
Dyeing.
Sculpturing.
Clockmaking.
Sugar.
Tin.
Glass.
Silk.
Curtains.
Potters.
Straw weaving.
Musical instruments.
Machine technology.
Carpenters.
Painters.

INSANITY IN ENGLAND, as in other civilized countries, is on the increase. The annual report of the lunacy commissioners of England and Wales, just published, contains some rather startling statements. The number of persons who became insane in 1902 was 22,581, an increase over 1901 of 3,251. At the beginning of 1903 the number of mad people in England and Wales was 113,964, or 1 in 293 of the population. During the past eight years the insanity rate has increased rapidly. In 1859 the number of insane persons was 36,762, a proportion of 1 in 536.

The great majority of those who became insane in 1902 are described as pauper lunatics. About one-third of them are said to have become insane through drink (23 per cent. of the males and 9.6 per cent. of the females). Heredity is responsible for 18.8 per cent. in the case of men and 24.6 per cent. of the women. Other causes of mental breakdown are adverse circumstances, worry, and overwork. Love affairs are the undoing of 3 in 200 women and 1 in 200 men. It is noteworthy that a majority of cases are accounted for by physical rather than mental causes. Their bodies are insufficiently nourished, and the brain suffers in consequence.

Most of the patients are admitted to asylums between the ages of 25 and 44, and one-fourth of them are suicidally inclined. Lunacy is increasing more in the country than in towns. The present rate of recovery is no greater than that of thirty years ago, notwithstanding improvements in methods of treatment.

Dr. E. W. White, the president of the Medico-Psychological Association, advocates state regulation of the drink traffic, with the view of lessening insanity, which is often caused by the badness and rawness of many cheap whiskies. The government should also prevent the marriages of persons mentally unsound or disordered, for the taint of insanity is apt to be transmitted to children. Dr. White points to the strain of modern education as one factor in the increase of derangement in the upper middle classes.

"ISLES OF SAFETY."—The first of the three "Isles of Safety" which New York has decided to have is in place at the center of Fifth Avenue, south of the Twenty-

AN ISLE OF SAFETY, NEW YORK CITY.

third Street railroad tracks between the apex of the "Flatiron" Building and the opposite side of the avenue. It is a beautiful shaft surmounted by an electrolier providing for light and the display of street signs. Its purpose is to divide the traffic, so that the rules of the road about keeping to the right will be obeyed. This helps to control the reckless driving and insures safety to the public. At the same time it affords a place of safety for pedestrians crossing the avenue. Such "Isles of Safety" have been used for twenty years in Paris, Vienna, Budapest, and many other cities in continental Europe.

The stirring of New York to this activity is the work of the Municipal Art So-

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ciety. Under the direction of this Society a prize competition in designs was held unrestricted as to age or sex. The prizes amount of $650. Expenditure for the completed work was limited to $1,-$500. A jury composed of Borough President Jacob A. Cantor, Frederick Crowninshield; President of the Fine Arts Federation, John DeWitt Warner; President of the Municipal Art Society, William T. Evans; F. Wellington Ruckstuhl, Frederick Stymetz Lamb, F. Benedict Herzog, Nelson D. Spencer, George E. Bissel, H. D. T. Hamlin, William L. Harris, H. A. McNeil, George B. Post, Bruce Price, and Charles M. Shean awarded the first prize to Victor A. Ciana, the second to Henrik Wallin, and the third to Wilkinson and McGornigle. The city accepted Mr. Ciani's design. The illustration shows how the "Isle of Safety" looks with its effect on the congested street.

MESABI IRON RANGE, MINNESOTA.—Just about twelve years ago a lone and weary explorer, while resting after an unsuccessful "cruise" in the wild and then unknown regions of Northern Minnesota, discovered in the root of an upturned tree some ochre, a yellow rusty soil which indicates the presence of iron ore. On a chance and against his judgment, for the place was south of the "granite," accepted then by all explorers as the southern limit of the possible iron bearing formations, the prospector made further investigation of his find.

He was actually resting on the Biwabik mine—a mine which up to 1902 has produced over four million tons of high grade iron ore and which is one of the score or more big mines on the Mesabi range. The geological formation in which the discovery was made was different from the formation in which the other Lake Superior iron mines occurred and the ore was of a different character. At first there were skeptics among the iron men and explorers, but the iron was there and of good quality and almost at the grass roots, for in many places only a few feet of loose gravel covered a body of iron ore from 200 to 300 feet thick and to a horizontal extent for forty acres or more. This discovery of iron in the roots of a fallen tree changed the history of iron mining in the Lake Superior country and vitally affected the commerce and industry of the whole United States.

The first shipment of iron from the Biwabik mine, which was the first mine owned on the newly discovered range, was in 1892. In 1895 the Mesabi district, as the new range was called, became the largest producer in the Lake Superior region. The total shipments of iron ore from the Mesabi in 1902 was 13,329,953 tons. This was 33 per cent. of the total production of the United States and more than half the production of the whole Lake Superior district. The estimated output for 1903 is 18,000,000 tons. The total reserve tonnage of the Mesabi is estimated at about 700,000,000 tons, about 60 per cent. of which is Bessemer grade, the highest quality. The aggregate amount of high grade ore in sight up to 1902 on the "old ranges" of the Lake Superior region is estimated at 350,000,000 tons.

The effect that the opportune discovery of this great body of iron ore has had upon the iron and steel trade of the country cannot be figured out. An iron operator said to me recently that had the Mesabi not been discovered the ore from the old ranges would to-day be selling at double the present prices. In fact, in addition to keeping iron ore at a price which permitted the iron and steel industries to expand and prosper so wonderfully, it may be said that the Mesabi has actually saved these industries by furnishing a supply of raw material for the enormously increased product.

The Mesabi ores are nearly all soft ores and break up like so much gravel or dirt. The ore deposits all lie in great shallow troughs or beds and are generally only covered with a mantle of glacial "drift," —or gravel from a few feet to 100 feet thick. The usual method of mining is to "strip" off the overlying soil and load the ore direct by steam shovels into railway cars for transportation to the ore docks at Lake Superior ports. Some of the ore is mined by shafts and underground methods, but none of the mines are over 300 feet deep. The mining is altogether so cheap that aside from the question of supply the price of the ore in the markets is much lower than that of the hard ore mines.

This open-pit mining is characteristic of the Mesabi and along the strip of the for-

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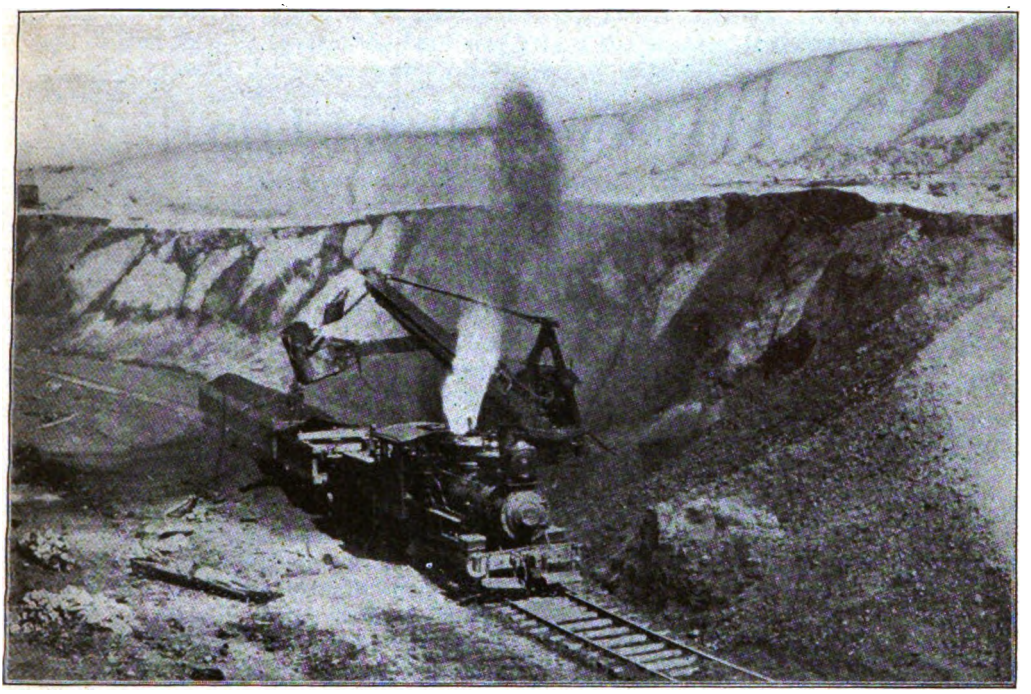

MOUNTAIN IRON MINE WITH STEAM SHOVEL LOADING THE ORE ON CARS.
The light colored bank represents the "surface" or gravel which is removed by "stripping."

mation, a productive belt from one-half to two miles wide and about fifty miles long, the surface yawns with great gashes and cuts. The amount of ore and rock removed on the Mesabi in the past decade is more than equal to that which will be moved in the construction of the Panama ditch and all done by private capital and enterprise. By reason of the use of the steam shovel comparatively few men are employed in this prodigious work. The ore, in banks, is loosened by blasting, and then loaded directly into the cars at the rate of a 50-ton car every five minutes for every shovel. These cars are pushed around by busy "dinky" engines and are made up into trains of from 40 to 50 cars for hauling to the ore docks at Two Harbors, Duluth, or Superior, a distance of about 80 miles. One steam shovel will load 6,500 tons in a day and is operated by six men. The labor cost of mining and loading averages about sixteen cents a ton. In one mine the labor cost is only four cents a ton. In the transfer of ore from mine to vessel on the lakes the absence of hand labor is noticeable. The ore trains are run upon long docks extending high above the water and having large pockets or apartments into which the ore is discharged from the cars through an opening in the bottom of the car, from which the ore runs by gravity into the pockets beneath the tracks. From these pockets the ore is loaded into the vessel, also by gravity, and passed down long chutes into the hold so that no hand labor is required in transferring the ore from the cars to the vessel. The ore pockets or apartments, which form a part of the dock, hold about 160 tons each, and number from 90 to 384, according to the length of the dock.

This ore is taken to Cleveland by vessel and from there distributed to the iron centers. The ore sells at Cleveland from $2.75 to $3.50 a ton.

At the present rate of increased production, and unless the reserve is largely increased by explorations, the Mesabi mines will be exhausted in 30 or 40 years. Some say 25 years. The latter figure is probably nearer the truth, because of the great activity in the iron and steel business. The future will have to find its own answer to the question "Where will the supply of iron come from when the Lake Superior deposits are worked out?"

KIRBY THOMAS.

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A Mississippi River Trip.

BY

JULIA D. COWLES.

CLAM FISHERS OF THE MISSISSIPPI WITH CLAMS HANGING TO THE TRAWLS.

IT has become a trite saying that nine-tenths of the Americans who go abroad have no comprehensive idea of their own country. Within the last few years, California, the Yellowstone region, and the various scenic routes leading from the Middle West to the Pacific coast, have seen a growing number of tourists, but it is still rare for a traveler to think of making any extended river trip within the borders of the United States, with the exception of an occasional visit to the St. Lawrence. And yet the Mississippi River, the second longest river of the world, is also one of the grandest, possessing a varied beauty of shore, ranging from a quiet pastoral tranquillity to a broken and precipitous ruggedness. Its great commercial importance, too, is rivaled by its wealth of adventurous history, of legend and romance.

The might and majesty, the wealth and beauty of this great river are fittingly set forth in the colossal marble statue just completed by Larkin J. Mead, the noted American sculptor in Florence, which is soon to be placed at the main entrance to the city of Minneapolis. This statue of heroic size, carved in Carrara marble, represents the river-god half reclining upon the rocks which represent the high bluffs of the upper shores, his back resting against an old-fashioned mill-wheel. From beneath his left elbow flows a stream of pure water, while his right hand holds a stalk of sugar corn. Other symbols are a wreath of tobacco leaves, mingled with pine cones and water lilies, typical of the varied phases of the stream, as well as showing the products of its shores. The statue is mighty in conception, and has the attitude of repose that marks the greatness and majesty of the river.

The Mississippi River was formerly the great artery of trade, and the principal means of communication and travel for the Middle West; but as railways increased, the river was gradually abandoned, to some extent, for the more rapid means of transit. In spite of all this, that the river is still of immense importance is witnessed by the thousands of dollars annually spent upon it by the government. This money is expended in improving the channel, preserving the banks, and in maintaining canals and locks where rapids make it dangerous for the passage of boats. The locks are built of solid masonry, with parks at the sides, which make them something more than objects of utility. The government method of preserving the banks, which are in constant danger of being washed away by the current, affords a novel and interesting sight. Small willows are cut, woven, and tied in such a manner as to form mats of immense area. These are then towed to the point where the bank needs protection, loaded with stones and such heavy material as may be at hand, and

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sunk, so that they lie against the bank and effectually prevent the river from farther washing at that point.

A fine line of steamers plies between St. Paul and St. Louis, and the trip is one of the most restful and delightful forms of recreation that can be secured.

A short distance below St. Paul is Lake Pepin. Here the river broadens out to four miles in width, forming this gem among inland lakes. It is thirty miles long, and is one of the most charming portions of the river. Precipitous bluffs hem in a portion of the lake, which is far-famed for its beauty.

The river towns lie close to the shore, and many of them have a background of hills, covered in part with soft verdure, and in other places cropping out in bold and rocky cliffs, forming an ever-changing series of picturesque views.

At St. Louis the boats pass under the famous Eads bridge, one of the marvels of American engineering. Farther down the river the scenery is less varied and interesting, although there is a marked difference below that point in the crops, in the character of the cities, and in the mixed population, which presents picturesque contrasts that are seldom seen in the North.

The boats of the upper river, however, have colored deck hands, who furnish an endless study in their happy-go-lucky mingling of work and play, of singing, dancing, and scrambling for an occasional shower of coins.

At the upper end of the river large rafts of logs are frequently seen, propelled by small steamers, which have replaced the boisterous crews by which rafts were formerly piloted down the river. Winona and LaCrosse have large lumber industries, and most of the logs that pass the great mills of Minneapolis are bound for these points.

Another industry much in evidence is that of clam-fishing. Clams are secured

A SQUATTER HOUSEBOAT ON THE MISSISSIPPI.

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LOWER LOCK ON THE MISSISSIPPI AT KEOKUK, IOWA.

for the shells, which are brought by boat-loads to the factories along shore, and converted into pearl buttons. Occasionally a valuable fresh-water pearl is found, and slugs, or imperfect pearls, which are now extensively employed in jewelry, are frequently secured. As a rule, however, the fisherman depends upon his cargoes of clam-shells, and makes a somewhat hazardous living by this means. Poles, to which are attached a dozen or more lines, with hooks at frequent intervals, are fastened to the boat, and the owner then rows slowly, allowing the hooks to drag. The clams, with open shells, feel the entering hook and close sharply upon it, and in this manner are drawn into the boat. A large number are in this way caught at once. This industry is comparatively new upon the Mississippi; but hundreds of men are engaged in it, and many of them live upon the water during the summer months.

An interesting feature of river life is also furnished by the house-boats that slowly drift down with the current. Some, and these are the less picturesque and interesting, carry parties or families who are out for a thoroughly lazy and enjoyable outing. The boats are comfortably fitted, some even luxuriously, and the occupants watch the changing scenery, fish, or "tie up" wherever fancy dictates. It must be an idyllic sort of life. But there are other sorts of house-boats. Sometimes a family of dwellers upon "the Flats" at St. Paul will decide to migrate to a warmer and less strenuous latitude. They build a house-boat of driftwood, for driftwood is plentiful on the Flats, step aboard, push off, and with the current as propelling power, and a single oar for a rudder, they are independent of railway kings and transportation charges.

Four days are consumed in making the trip from St. Paul to St. Louis, and they are filled with rest and amusements of many and various sorts. Each point along the way has its story of early-day legend and romance. The explorers who first entered the red man's country have left accounts which would afford material for another series of "Leather-Stocking Tales;" the Mormons here had an early struggle for a foothold, but were forced to follow the course of empire farther westward still; the Indian legends, which have given names to many of the bluffs, as well as to towns and tributary streams, are rehearsed on deck, sometimes verbatim as received from some old chief who has been coaxed or bribed to its telling.

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Music as an Ethical and Spiritual Force in Education.

BY

H. N. HIGINBOTHAM.

THAT music has in it a power making toward the elevation and unification of the human race is a fact discovered and proved by William L. Tomlins, whose work in Chicago, for a quarter of a century, and whose broader labors, for the past five years, in all the great cities of the United States have won for him the cordial recognition and support of great educators everywhere and of all sincere and earnest musicians and students of music who have followed his experiments and demonstrations.

Time was when the announcement of startling discoveries in physical science were received with incredulity on the part of the public. Not a dozen years ago if any man had asserted that under certain conditions an iron door could be made as transparent as a pane of plate glass he would have been judged insane, but Roentgen discovered that wonderful ray which takes its name from him; the public was permitted to see through the iron door and unbelief was banished.

WILLIAM L. TOMLINS.

For centuries the scientific dreamers endeavored to make a talking machine and marvelously ingenious and complicated constructions of wires and strings, of keys and pedals, of pipes and bellows resulted, but nothing complete and practical. And then, all at once, by a marvelous stroke of genius, Edison solved the problem and invented that simple and yet perfect talking machine—the phonograph.

To-day, the phonograph, the Roentgen ray, the telephone, and innumerable other wonders of modern scientific discovery are accepted as matters of course by the public, and such confidence has been inspired by past achievements in this especial field that the announcement of a Marconi, that telegrams could be sent without the use of wires, is readily accepted; for the day of incredulity has passed and the dawn of appreciation has appeared.

It is evident that the dawn of a new day in musical discovery is breaking. Those who have followed the work done in this field by Mr. Tomlins gladly recognize this fact. A wonderful power for good has been evolved. The world needs this new force, just as it needed the phonograph, the Roentgen ray, the telephone and the wireless telegraph. Indeed, the demand for this new power is more imperative than that for purely physical discoveries, for it is universal and appeals to the minds, the hearts, the souls, not only of the men and women of to-day, but also of the children and of the generations yet to be.

For twenty-five years, as conductor of

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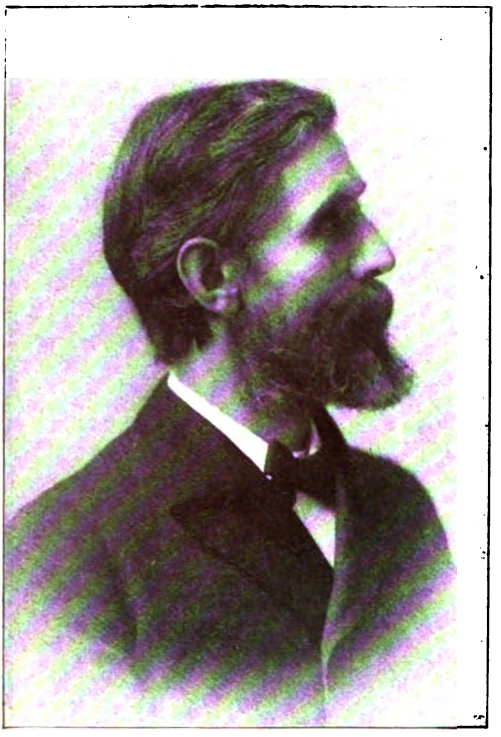

HARLOW N. HIGINBOTHAM.

the Chicago Apollo Club, Mr. Tomlins gradually approached his great discovery. He became famous as one of the greatest chorus leaders in the world. The "Apollo tone" won recognition as something distinctly unique, original, individual, and wholly admirable. No other singing society, unless trained by Mr. Tomlins, had it, nor could it be attained. How did he secure such results?

Of course, Tomlins knew how his results were secured, but he was too deeply absorbed in the greater problems, back of this tone-production, to make explanations. He was on the track of a discovery which is destined to revolutionize educational methods. He was doing a work which is to be worldwide in its power for good.

Realizing at last that he had the discovery fully in his grasp, Mr. Tomlins, some five years ago, resigned his directorship of the Apollo Club, abandoned his professional work in Chicago, and began an educational tour of the United States and Canada, telling the educators in the great cities of this country what he had discovered, and teaching the teachers the practical value of his music work in general education. Not only did he tell what he could do, but also he organized classes of children, taking his pupils from all grades of society, and producing results, wonderful from a musical point of view, and unprecedented in broad and deep moral, mental, and physical development.

There is a philosophy back of all this successful teaching, a philosophy which is as true as it is beautiful. This philosophy has been developed from the work and not the work from the philosophy. This being the case, it is truly practical and appeals as readily to the child as to the adult. And, as results are far more convincing than theories, this great teacher is quite content to let his work speak for him. This work has largely centered in Chicago. The great choral class of children, conducted by Mr. Tomlins during the Columbian Exposition, attracted the attention of the world to the work he had been doing here. Mme. Nilsson, herself one of the greatest singers of modern times, was so amazed at the purity, volume, and beauty of the tone produced that she expressed her wonder and delight in a letter of high appreciation addressed to the great conductor. At that time the world began dimly to understand that a new force had been discovered, not a power that could turn the wheels of a machine, but a power that, properly employed and widely applied, would prevent men from becoming simply cogs in the wheels of a great industrial machine.

How will this be accomplished?

On this point it is better to quote directly from Mr. Tomlins, who says: "I have discovered in song a new force in education—powers hitherto undreamed of. By the term song I do not refer to the generally accepted vocal performance, but to the inner life—the soul of the song. It is unfortunate for my purposes that the word song is associated with so much that is unworthy of the name. All that we are in the habit of demanding or expecting of song is that it shall be a correct performance of the music and that the tone quality shall be smooth and express sentiment. But the power of song does not inhere in all this. Back of this is the soul of the song seeking expression, which in its deepest meaning only the spirit of the singer can know and interpret."

Again he says: "Song is not for the fa-

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vored few with heaven gifted voices—it is the heritage of the many. Every child should voice himself, his joy of living—through song; his realization of the truth that whatever his condition of life, the fact of his living is a gain and joy to him and his vocal expression will be a blending of all his powers, physical, mental, and spiritual."

In that last sentence is the heart of the Tomlins philosophy. It appeals, not to one element of our being, but to all, and develops along hitherto unknown lines, the physical, mental, and spiritual. To the average grade-school teacher a lesson in singing is simply a singing lesson, just as a lesson in geography is a geography lesson; but to Mr. Tomlins a lesson in singing is a lesson in living, a step toward brotherhood, a distinct advance toward that unity of purpose which makes it possible for each one to understand that in no uncertain sense is he his brother's keeper. From this it must be plain that a distinctly new force in music has been discovered.

It is not necessary to dwell at length upon the value of this force to the world under existing conditions. Every thinking man knows that the tension of life is reaching the limit of human endurance. The rich are overwhelmed with the vast responsibilities of their position; the poor are oppressed with a gloomy apprehension of still worse to come. The laborer is losing individuality; the capitalist is self-centered and absorbed. What is to be done? The next generation will face an intolerable condition if relief is not found.

In music, as taught by Mr. Tomlins, the solution of this serious problem is promised. He has shown by his work among the teachers and the children of Chicago that out of his teaching come in succession, to those who are under his instruction, the joy of living, the play spirit, the richness of companionship, sympathy, service, and sacrifice. With these sentiments in wide operation, the tension of living will be relieved and the strangling grip of materialism will be changed to the cordial handclasp of mutual forbearance and fraternity.

There has never been any question as to the value and importance of the work done by Mr. Tomlins. But the question has arisen as to his ability to communicate his power to others. The wonderful sincerity, vitality, and magnetism of the man and the compelling power of his genius, were alleged to be the sources of his success. It was said by some, that with the passing of the teacher would also pass his philosophy. But Mr. Tomlins positively replied to these suggestions: "This is not a force due to personality; it is a universal, latent power, which can be developed and used by everybody. My work has developed at just the time when the world needs it most; it is as if I had discovered water in a world dying of thirst."

This marvelously original man has but one great purpose in life and that is to give his discovery to the world. One result of his educational tour has been a general demand from all parts of the country, and from England, for the establishment of an institution of national scope for training teachers to use the Tomlins method.

Having kept in personal touch with Mr. Tomlins for twelve or fifteen years, some nine months ago I persuaded him that Chicago was the place in which to establish his National Institute, and the best way to start it was to show here, with some teachers from our public schools, what could be done.

Last January one hundred grade teachers were appointed by the Chicago Board of Education to attend a weekly class to be taught by Mr. Tomlins for a period of six months. In order that the taxpayers should be at no expense, I undertook the financial responsibility of this experiment. The six months' term of instruction expired during the latter part of June. The teachers were asked to report the result in writing. Over 15,000 words of testimonials were received and published in a report submitted to the Board of Education. It is a record of absolute and unqualified success.

If the Tomlins method had in it simply the development of its students along purely musical lines it would not appeal to me, because it would thus be nothing more than the development of a specialty and might with all justice be termed a "fad." But, being convinced that this discovery has universal scope, and that the study of this method develops the student not only musically, but also vitally, I *am* interested and desire that its influence should be made operative in the schools of Chicago. I realize that school

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methods have changed greatly since the days when I was a lad attending a rural school, and that this change has been greater and more radical in the immense educational systems of large cities. All these changes have grown out of experience and necessity and are not to be condemned, but there is an evil connected with this marvelously systematized method of work; an evil which is intensified as the years go on, as the work expands, and as the need of perfect organization and almost military discipline among teachers and pupils increases. I know that the greatest good that came to me, as a youth, raised on a farm and attending rural schools, was that which I received from the personal influence of my teachers, the human interest passing from instructor to pupil; and I know that this, the most valuable of all the factors in education, is the one thing which is lost in the working of the vast and intricate machinery made necessary in the conduct of a school system equal to the requirements of a great city like Chicago.

How can this lost element of inestimable value be restored?

If the pupils in our schools could be brought in contact with the broad-minded educators who move independently at the head of our school system, this question would be answered; but, of course, this is not possible. The grade teachers are obliged to follow the "regulations;" they cannot experiment, they have no field of free and original activity, and just at the point where the personal, human, and vitalizing contact should take place between teacher and pupil, the contact is broken, mechanism intervenes, and what should be a vivifying force becomes a mere mechanical process.

This being the case, the question reiterates itself: "How can this lost element of inestimable value be restored?"

I believe that in the Tomlins method of musical instruction has been discovered the very thing to fill this want, and it has been discovered at the moment when it is most needed. My belief is based on a knowledge of what this method has accomplished during the past twelve or fifteen years for the children of Chicago, who have come under its influence, and from the testimony of the one hundred teachers who took part in the six months' expository experiment already referred to. These teachers say that they feel that their capacity for usefulness in their work has been doubled, and that their vitalizing influence on their pupils has received an impetus that can never cease so long as they are teachers, but must ever increase as they study more and learn more about this remarkable system.

During the next school year there will be from 1,000 to 1,200 teachers selected from the Chicago schools by the Board of Education, who will be instructed by Mr. Tomlins. This is a bright prospect for the contemplation of parents, teachers. and pupils. It means a great deal to the public schools of Chicago, and is a long step toward the nationalization of the Tomlins method.

MUSICAL POVERTY OF AMERICA.—The fact has been commented upon that America has produced no great music. Our country has had creditable composers who have given us popular songs and cantatas, but rarely have they attempted to write ambitious works, such as oratorios and operas. The programs of park concerts ought to reveal the talent of native musicians, but foreign names predominate —Balfe, Gounod, Verdi, Wagner, etc. Such selections are heard more often than the songs of George F. Root and Sep. Winner, although these are favorites.

Why this dearth of musical genius? The answer is that as a people we have neglected music. We have developed on the material side and have not cultivated the arts as much as Europeans have. We have had painters and poets, but usually they have not been highly original—they have found their inspiration in foreign lands and imitated Old World masters.

Shall we sometime have leisure and taste for fine art? If so, there is abundant material at hand for good music. Already something has been done to produce folk-songs based on American themes, negro and Indian. The success of Stephen C. Foster, G. W. Chadwick, E. A. MacDowell, and others in dealing with such material shows possibilities that are more than promising. In time, we may hope for some music distinctively American besides student songs and darky melodies, for songs of the workers and for serious compositions reflecting Western life.

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The Old Faith and the New.

BY

GEORGE B. FOSTER, A. M.,

Professor of Systematic Theology, The University of Chicago.

THERE was a time—five or six centuries ago—when one entered the temple of the Christian faith literally through all doors. Christianity included the whole of civilization, culture, and science. To be born into the world was to be born into the Church; to be in the Church was to be a Christian. Faith, and that meant doctrine, ruled all human activity. Of course, it was always possible to deny the consent of the heart to the faith, that is, the doctrine, but never the assent of the intellect. Christian dogma constituted the form and substance of all thought. It was through the *Christian idea alone* that one came into the sphere of *ideas in general.* Theological science dominated all others; gathered them all up and made them serve its own ends. Theology was *the* science; apart from it there was only ignorance.

But Christianity enjoyed the same supremacy, not only in science, but in every other sphere—if not actually, yet as a right. The Christian ideals were dominant and normative. They were the last court of appeal, both for the social and the personal conscience. Implicitly accepted, explicitly formulated, Christianity formed a unity with humanity. One entered into Christianity, as one did into existence, without any choice of one's own. The question as to the conditions of faith—so vital to us—did not exist for them.

What, now, was the ground of this complete identification of Christianity and humanity? It was not due to the *inner* triumph of Christianity over humanity, but to an *unconscious compromise.* From the second century of our era on, the old world and the new religion reciprocally approximated, reciprocally penetrated. Christianity for its part in the compact offered its substance; the old culture furnished the form—furnished much more besides. The philosophic and the religious elements fused, and separation between the two became impossible in the old world. The new product was Catholic Christianity.

On the practical side, there was the effect of the invasion of the barbarian world into the civilized world, the consequent danger threatening the Græco-Roman thought and the Christian religion alike. To meet this danger also, these two, originally foes, united. Their common bond was so strong, and the fight which they had to wage against the barbarian world was so hot that they came out of the fray welded together as firmly as two metals from the forge. They formed an indissoluble union—a union of the Christian faith with the juristic, dialectic theories of Rome and of Athens. And this union served as the foundation and cornerstone of the structure of the new society. The Church as the sole center of both culture and religion brought not only faith to the new peoples, but also principles of a philosophy, methods of a science, categories of social and political right—all of which the Church had gathered up into itself, and given faithful and consistent expression in ecclesiastical dogma. This dogma was a special creation and property of the Church, and was made an integral part of her cult. The Church possessed all the factors for generating a civilization wherever she turned to a people that had none. The Church, religious, philosophical, social, educational, offered herself to them in the name of the *religious ideal.* She molded the peoples after her own models.

This, then, was the source and cause of that marvelous and deep unity of man and believer, church and society, dogma and science, world and religion. And we have here the source and cause of the breach between all these pairs that we observe

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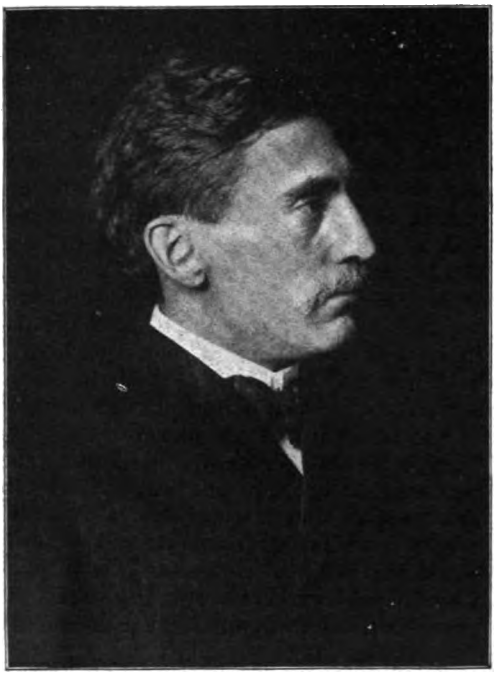
throughout Christendom to-day. This breach is so striking that it is useless to linger over it; so radical that it is scarcely possible to conceive of its being greater. You get the same impression whether you think of science as a whole or of any particular science. Here, the hostility is intentional and the incompatibility odious; there, a contemptuous indifference; everywhere, from academic philosophy to popular literature, a complete independence of faith and religion in the old sense. The separation between what we once called "the secular and the sacred" is fundamental to-day, and the secular is in the ascendancy. Indeed, it is the new secular rather than the old sacred that is held to be the Divine and the Good to-day. The autonomy of the natural man over against the believer, science over against theology, society over against church, world over against Christianity in the old sense, is more and more pronounced. Even morality, the sphere most intimately bound up with the Christian religion, slips out from under her dominion and seeks self-dependence. To be sure, now and then a man popularly supposed to be a bearer of modern culture announces that he is "becoming more orthodox every day;" but this is an eddy in the stream and does not affect the great current which moves irresistibly onward. Such a man either does not know definitely what the system of thought called orthodoxy is, or is not a man in whom modern culture has become really domesticated—otherwise, more serious to say, either deceives himself or the public, or both. For there is not a single proposition peculiar to orthodoxy that the modern man as such (one may live in the modern time without being a modern man, of course) does, or can, consistently hold.



GEORGE B. FOSTER.

Now the grounds of the separation mentioned above are to be referred to two great facts: First, *a radical revolution of scientific method,* and, secondly, *a correlative change of the center of the intellectual world.*

As to the first, it began, say, with Bacon, and resulted in the collapse of the old mode of procedure. It contained in germ the autonomy of science which plays so great a rôle to-day. The new method may be expressed in one word, *observation,* experience. It is through observation that science has changed masters. Formerly science was a captive of dogma; now, of nature. Formerly it was deductive; now, inductive. Formerly one subjected reality to the categories of the understanding; now, one subjects the understanding in sovereign obedience to facts. Formerly one said: "Things must be so, therefore they are so;" now, one says: "Things are what they are, and we will look at them and look into them and see what they are." At the same time the harmony, the identification, of faith and knowledge which the catholicism of the middle ages had reached by means of scholasticism and papacy was broken. The breach, scarcely perceptible at first, grew swiftly greater; the nineteenth century finished it by the vast development of experimental science, until, as I say, the breach became a yawning chasm.

At the outset it looked as if there was to be a similar movement in religion. Luther, for example, was a man of experience in religion as Bacon in science. Only Luther's was inner experience or observation, or apprehension, through the conscience, while Bacon's was outer experience through the senses. Indeed, the whole reformation looked at first as if it was to be a return from the age-long, dominant a priori procedure to direct observation

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of religious facts. To be sure, the reformer tried to keep intact the spiritual authority of the Bible at the expense of the traditional authority of Catholic dogma; and the appeal was to an historical argument also—namely, the outstanding superiority of the primitive revelation. But where, ultimately, did the reformers find the guaranty of this argument and the badge of this superiority? *In the personal experience of the individual himself.* This was the epoch-making thing in the reformation. When Luther, in the name of the Christian conscience, broke the iron bands of the papal system he undertook a similar work in another region and applied the same method in another sphere that Bacon, the English philosopher, introduced into science. Both Luther and Bacon desired to be true to the reality of facts. Therefore, Bacon made what he called profane science; Luther what he called religious truth, dependent on experience and observation. And our whole new world is continuous with them: *action precedes knowledge*; moral action precedes moral knowledge; religious experience precedes the knowledge of God. We do not find God at the end of a syllogism, but through the experience of the life. The new theology and the new pedagogy are of a piece both as regards point of view and method.

The experimental character of the new religious movement, however, had the tragic misfortune not to understand its own genius and not to be understood. It was soon lost in a new scholasticism, i. e., orthodoxy, all the more regrettable because it bore the Protestant name, and was a contradiction to the nature of that very faith which it expounded. Science kept to its new method and has gone on conquering and to conquer. Religion did not, but became orthodoxy. Religion is now belatedly returning to the new and true method.

Secondly, the correlative to the rise of the experimental method was *the taking up of the spiritual leadership of humanity by the peoples of the North.* Reference has already been made to the Old Church's tedious training of the barbarians. But what the church did to subdue the barbarians came to work at last in an emancipative way upon them. They more and more attained to the consciousness of the genius of their race, which was that of freedom instead of authority. Authority is an old-world principle; freedom is a new-world principle. We live to-day in the epoch of the second barbarian invasion, so to speak; the place of conflict is no longer the battlefield, but the kingdom of knowledge; the victory is no longer the prize of physical force, but of stronger ideas; the weapons are no longer the sword—not even the canon!—but the library and the laboratory.

But, more particularly, it is the difference between the peoples of the North and those of the South—between Germany, Britain, America, and Italy, Spain, even France—with which I am concerned just now. Who are the peoples to-day who have the liveliest part in taking possession of the earth? Where do you find the greatest capacity of adaptability combined with the tensest, toughest energy? On what is our literature nourished? Whence our philosophy? Whence the new views and the ruling ideas of our science? In a word, whence the substance, the form, and the tendency of our thought? From the North or from the South? There can be no doubt as to the answer. Why, there is Charles Darwin, with his fundamental thought, who has fixed the spiritual type that is peculiar to the genius of the North: process, becoming, development, change. For that old southern genius, all *has* become; for the northern, all is becoming. For the old, reality was static substance; for the new, dynamic consciousness. The South remains true to its old Roman heritage, and sees things from the *legal* point of view; the North, from the *moral.* For the old the primacy was in the intellect; for the new in the will. For the old, man came into possession of his chief good by the passive contemplative vision of God; for the new, by the energetic service of man. For the old, man was saved by withdrawing from the world; for the new, by triumphing over the world. For the old, salvation was by knowledge; for the new it is by moral action. For the old, man was saved by imperturbableness and tranquillity; for the new, by trouble and struggle and sorrow. For the old, man was saved by belief; for the new, man is saved by doubt—you will not misunderstand me!—and it is just possible that there is more *faith* in the new doubt

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than in the old belief. Once the great matter was the conformity of conduct to a model under the eye of authority; now, it is the development of character under the responsibility of freedom. A great change this from the old to the new. Everywhere, once, being was before becoming; now, becoming is before being. It is evident on a moment's reflection that Christianity as an authority-religion belongs to the old static view of reality; but that Christianity as a religion primarily of the will, of freedom, of the moral consciousness belongs to the new view of reality as process, becoming, development.

And Jesus, whose incomparable moral genius still outstrips the centuries, is distinctly on the side of the modern man in this whole controversy. His was not a law-religion, an authority-religion. His ultimate appeal was never to an external authority. Jesus' grounds of faith are all without exception of a moral kind. He even said that a moral word from Moses far back in the days of small things was worth more as evidential value in the gospel than if one should rise from the dead. Nothing so little corresponds to His procedure as a compulsory dogma. His reasons are not hostile to Reason, but to the dormant will, to the antagonisms of the flesh. *Reverence for the voice of conscience,* and *corresponding obedience—this,* for all who seek after righteousness, is the ground of faith. To such reflection, such *inner observation,* does the Nazarene invite all His human brothers in order that, in this light of conscience, they may climb to His height—in a way that He may be the Light of their light, the Conscience of their conscience.

There is an impressive illustration of this whole matter in Christ's interview with Pilate. Pilate asked: Art thou a king? But where is the sign? Pilate's first thought was of the kingdom of force. But Jesus was not to conquer by the might of force. Thou sayest it, I am a king; to this end was I born, and for this cause came I into the world that I might bear witness to the truth. But this was but to shift the problem for Pilate. Truth?—that was to him but a new kind of force; it set him to thinking of the philosophers. So Pilate now thought that Jesus meant to conquer, not by the might of physical, but by the might of intellectual force—*force* in either case. Jesus corrected Pilate by saying—*not,* he that heareth my voice is of the truth—that would be to conquer by the might of force again—*but,* he that is *of the truth* heareth my voice! And what does *that* mean? It is indeed a kingdom of the children of the truth that Jesus rules over. But it is not impersonal scientific truth of which Jesus is thinking. Jesus was no man of science. Jesus was a man of life, king in the kingdom of life; and those He gathers about Him He teaches, not the science, but the art, of life. He was king in the Kingdom of the Ideal; and He would conquer, not by the might of force—militarism, mechanism, or miracle, the compulsion of logic or oratory—but by ideals, their dynamic and their temptation. Truth is *personal*—and so Christ and conscience are continuous. It is because Jesus is like us that He can fasten on to our lives. It is because He is greater than we are that He bows us down in penitence and builds us up in faith.

Thus Christianity turns to the sole enduring and permanent element of our human life—the eternal gospel to the eternal man—and puts the stress on the moral consciousness. Thus, then, the conditions of faith in the present are also its eternal conditions, perfectly human and accessible to man. Thus, finally, the difficulties of the present situation are apparently very great; in reality very small. For the pathway remains free and open to-day as yesterday, yesterday as to-day. It is open to the humblest, not to the wisest; to him who *does,* not to him who knows! Man learns to walk it by obedience, not by knowledge. Faith has its origin in obedience to duty. He that willeth to do My will shall know. This is the great word in which the Son of Man appealed from His gospel, rejected by man, to that gospel regnant in man through conscience; and this word remains forever the basis of all human life and of all Christian certainty.

OPPORTUNITY comes when least expected. Bunyan's opportunity to write the greatest allegory of literature came in Bedford jail. Phil May's opportunity to draw theatrical posters came with his rejection as an actor. A Maine farmer's opportunity to invent the washing machine came when called to wash clothes for his invalid wife.

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American Park and Outdoor Art Association.

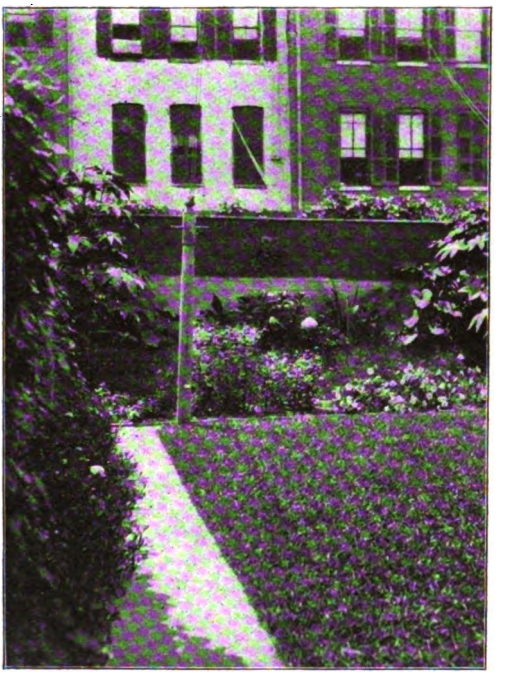
BY

ADELAIDE S. HALL.

FEW conventions have been so appropriately set as that of the American Park and Outdoor Art Association, which held its Seventh Annual Congress in the City of Buffalo, July 7-9, 1903. Splendid old elms and chestnuts, varied and thrifty shrubs, and quantities of harmoniously disposed flowers are the rule instead of the casual exception in that section of New York which has been so aptly termed "A city of homes." Several hundred men and women delegates, representing the United States, Canada, and Porto Rico, gathered in the Historical Building on the morning of the 9th, at the call of their President, Clinton Rogers Woodruff of Philadelphia, who responded to the welcome of Buffalo citizens represented by William Hengerer, President of the Buffalo Park Commission. At noon the delegates were entertained with a luncheon at the Park Refectory and afterwards were escorted by the city officials in a drive over the chain of parks.

Mr. Woodruff, in his annual address, reminded his audience that it was to one of the members of the Association, L. E. Holden of Cleveland, that the success of the "group plan" in that city was largely due, that another member, Albert Kelsey of Philadelphia, had inaugurated a movement for reconstructing Chautauqua into a model city, and called attention to the general uprising of the people against smoke, bill-boards, and uncleanly streets, as well as to the recent efforts of railroad companies to improve the approaches to cities and towns.

Charles Mulford Robinson, Secretary of the main Association, reported nearly 700 members and a constantly increasing interest in the literature sent out by the Association, while the reports of the Woman's Auxiliary officers showed active co-operation of many influential women's clubs in the work of planting after designs made by the landscape architects of the Association.



A RESULT OF THE ASSOCIATION'S WORK.
Showing banking of ground at rear of small yard in Brooklyn, planted under advice of Woman's Auxiliary Park and Out Door Art Association.

G. A. Parker of Hartford, Conn., in his report on "Park Census," urged the need of bringing the park to workingmen, by establishing public gardens near their homes, where wives and children may meet the men of their families in summer and take the evening meal out of doors; also the need of refectories in park gardens, where simple but warm food could be purchased, and of a band concert

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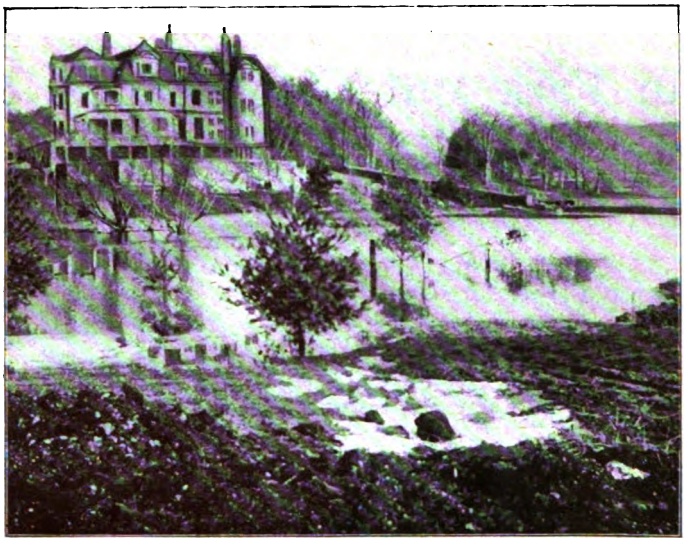
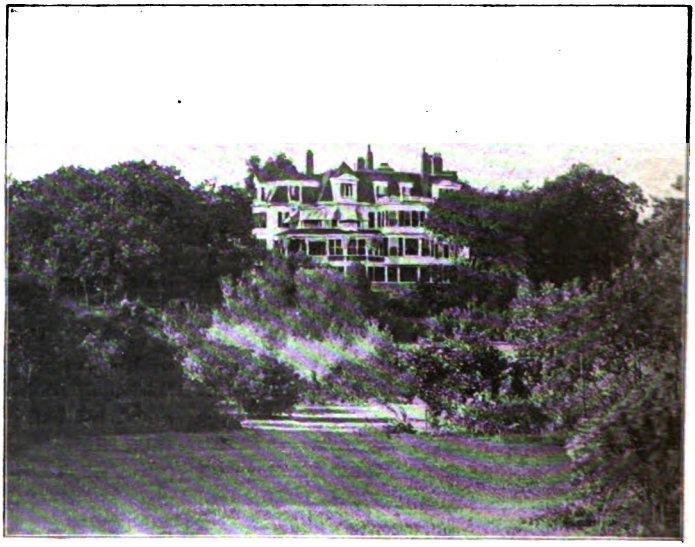


SIX MONTHS' PLANTING (BEFORE).

at least two evenings in the week. This would obviate for the working people the expense of long car rides, and soon establish the fashion among them of enjoying the parks in their working clothes. Mr. Volney Rogers of Youngstown, Ohio, in his paper on "Outdoor Life in Cities," maintained that one-fifth of the deaths in the United States for the past year were due to diseases acquired by indoor life, and urged more attractive footpaths in the parks and environs as a means of recreation for those unable to ride or drive. Mrs. Herman J. Hall of Chicago urged that park officials pay more attention to harmonious and appropriate architecture and sculpture in parks, affirming that the natural scenery should be the dominant note, and that portrait statues of men and women were out of place in these surroundings. She appealed to the people to abolish the Zoölogical Garden in connection with recreation grounds, from the standpoint of justice to wild animals who are made captive and of teaching children to countenance and enjoy the caging of birds from field and forest.

A resolution was adopted by the Association supporting the efforts of the California Outdoor Art League to preserve and beautify Telegraph Hill of San Francisco and to protect the Calaveras grove of big trees. John C. Olmsted, landscape architect of Brookline, Mass., read a paper on "Checking the Abuses of Public Advertising," written by Frederick Law Olmsted, which contained this most pertinent remark, that "Large numbers of people are obliged to suffer the annoyance of huge and unsightly billboards in order that a lesser number may learn something which they have not the intelligence to find out unless it is thrust upon them." E. J. Parker of Quincy, Ill., gave a forceful account of personal crusade against the "snipers" who cover telegraph poles and trees in a single night with hideous signs, and advocated the individual action of citizens to abolish this nuisance. Prof. L. H. Bailey of Cornell University, editor of "Country Life in America," urged the education of the visual sense, bemoaned the despoiling



SIX MONTHS' PLANTING (AFTER)

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RUSSIAN SETTLEMENT GARDEN.
Work of Milwaukee Branch A. P. O. A. A.

of vistas along country roads by advertisers and expressed the opinion that the solidity and dignity of our early architecture was superior to the modern jigsaw structures. Mrs Frances Copley Seavey described the "Possibilities of Home Grounds," so amply illustrated in the hostess city, from an economic as well as artistic standpoint. She advocated a careful plan in advance of even the smallest garden or lawn decoration as the fundamental principle of all good planting, and the necessity of studying effects that would obtain on the maturity of foliage and flowers, as well as the beauty to be secured by the correct training of vines. At the session devoted to School Gardens, Dick J. Crosby, of the Agricultural Department of Washington, D. C., offered resolutions which were adopted, the gist of which is as follows: "That the Association lend its active support to the beautification and maintenance of playgrounds and school gardens and encourage courses of study in all grades of schools to prepare teachers for this work. Reports given by H. D. Hemenway of Connecticut showed that over four hundred schools exist in New York State alone where pupils maintain flower and vegetable gardens.

At the session held by the Woman's Auxiliary, Miss Grace Young, Secretary of the Milwaukee Branch, explained the methods of two settlement gardens where boys and girls of the foreign element are being taught principles of landscape art and practical gardening under a competent instructor, with daily personal records and measurements and the encouragement of the pursuit by means of prizes given to the best worker, rather than for the best results. The Boston Branch, through its delegate, Mrs. Frederick Rowling Tibbitts, reported teaching the pupils of a number of public schools, by practical methods under a competent teacher, the processes of germination, habits, and food supply of the common plants. Mrs. Lewis Johnson of the New Orleans Branch related the efforts of that body to induce the children of the crowded districts to produce home gardens under the stimulus of liberal money prizes. The Chicago Branch, represented by its Secretary, Mrs. William

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MOSELY SCHOOL—SECOND YEAR PLANTING.
Chicago Branch of the Woman's Auxiliary.

Frederick Grower, revealed the pathetic fact that many children in the tenement district had never seen a flower growing until the bulbs planted in the various school yards by that organization came to maturity, and told of the consequent joy they offered to these little ones. A unique occasion in the history of this Branch was a musicale given to raise funds where refreshments were served from a table designed as a park. Mrs. John Stratton of the Louisville Branch, read a graphic account of the pleasure given to the inmates of the various benevolent institutions of that city by the artistic planting about their grounds, and of a floral ball given by the leading ladies of that city as an appropriate manner of raising funds for planting. Mrs. J. T. Hooper, President of the Ashland, Wisconsin, Branch, wrote of the concentration of that body on the beautification of the city street parkways as a benefit to workingmen and women, and the proclamation by city officials of a "municipal house-cleaning day." The Los Angeles Branch, through its Secretary, Mrs. W. J. Washburn, reported the education of public sentiment for landscape art by public lectures as well as by the preservation of old trees and the establishment of a nursery in preparation for Arbor day. All these branches reported decoration of from three to ten public-school yards. Mrs. Eben Byron Smith of Chicago spoke at length on "How to Make Friends with the Birds," touching briefly upon their economic value in parks and gardens in preserving foliage from destructive insects, as well as adding that greatest of attractions, music. Artistic photography out of doors was ably treated by Mrs. Frank A. Wade of Buffalo, who said in conclusion that "the long accepted idea of the merit of a photograph lay in its mechanical precision and not in its artistic expression. To-day the artist-photographer is demonstrating the fact that the camera is not an arbitrary machine, but an instrument subservient to his will whereby he works out his artistic conceptions and uses the instruments of his craft with as careful regard to finished results as does the artist in colors use the accessories of his calling.

The trip to Niagara Falls, as the guests of the Commissioners of the State Reservation and Queen Victoria Park, was most enjoyable, the women delegates being provided with seats in the private car of Mrs. Joseph Jones, wife of the President of the

MOSELY SCHOOL—SECOND YEAR PLANTING.
Chicago Branch of the Woman's Auxiliary.

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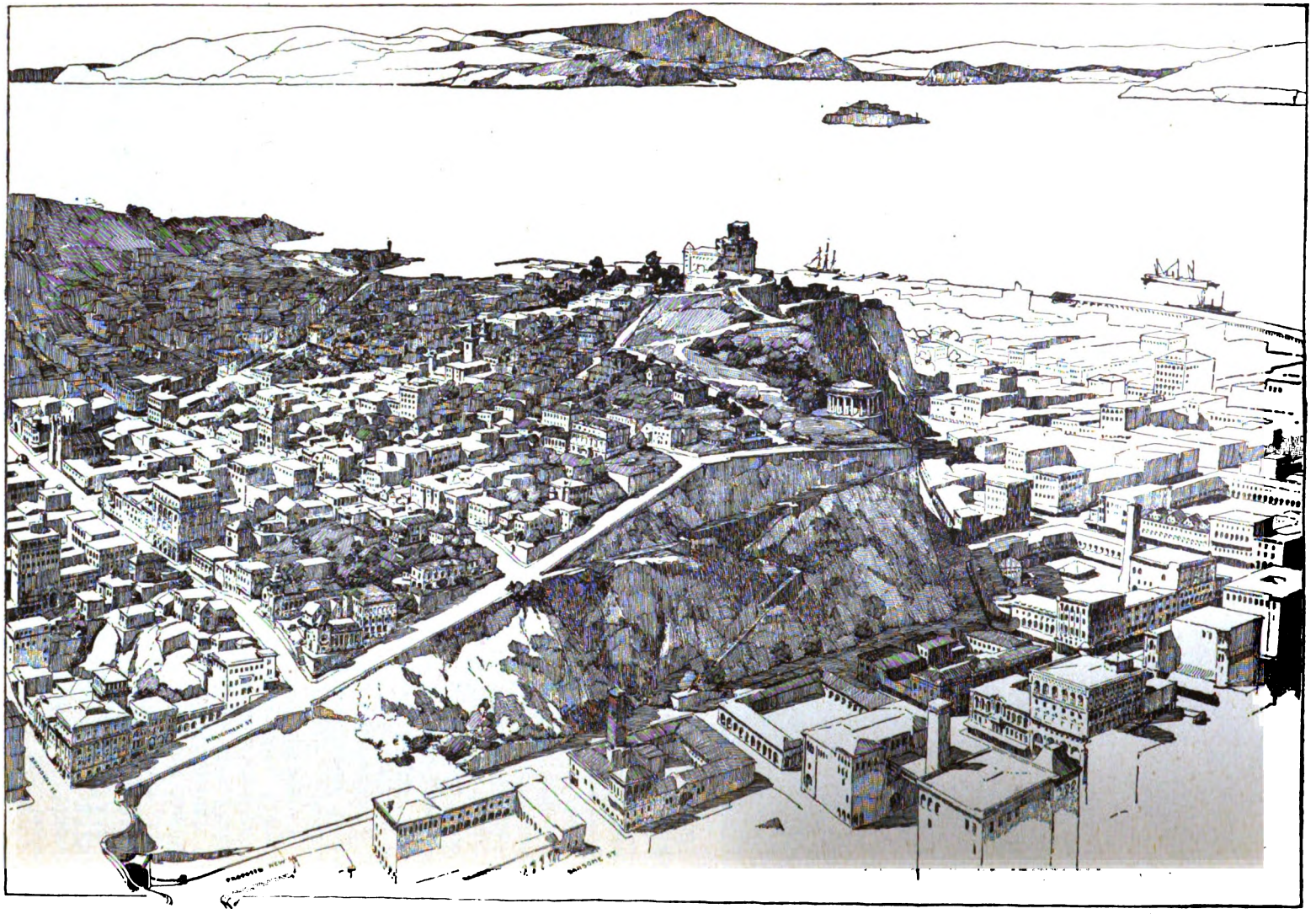

PROPOSED IMPROVEMENTS FOR THE PRESERVATION AND EMBELLISHMENT OF TELEGRAPH HILL, SAN FRANCISCO, CALIFORNIA.
Drawing made by Arthur F. Mathews for use by the California Outdoor Art League, pending a contemplated election for a municipal bond issue to provide the necessary funds.

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MOSELY SCHOOL—SECOND YEAR PLANTING.
Chicago Branch of the Woman's Auxiliary.

Gorge Route, who accompanied her guests. A fine luncheon at Queen Victoria Park brought the delegates together again, to separate later at Queenstown when the ladies were invited to take carriages for Mrs. John D. Larkins' typical Canadian country seat, Glen Cairn, where tea was served. The addresses at the State Reservation Hall and at the luncheon treated of park development and interest, and were effectively delivered by the Hon. T. H. Welch, Mr. Alex. J. Porter, and the Hon. J. W. Langmuir. The latter speaker finished his remarks concerning the power development at the Falls and the harmony between Canada and the States with a toast to his Majesty, the British King, and his Excellency, the President of the United States, which toast was drunk standing. It is noticeable that under the superintendency of Mr. Welch no merry-go-rounds or other diversions have been allowed to compete with the natural scenery. The State may well be proud of such sentiment and force in its superintendent.

The election of officers for the Association and its auxiliary gave the following results: President, Clinton Rogers Woodruff, Philadelphia; Vice-Presidents, John C. Olmsted, Boston, Mass.; Mrs. Herman J. Hall, Chicago; Warren H. Manning, Boston; Chas. W. Garfield, Grand Rapids; D. J. Crosby, Washington; W. O. Roy, Montreal; Secretary, Chas. Mulford Robinson, Rochester; Treasurer, Ossian C. Simonds, Chicago. Woman's Auxiliary: President, Mrs. Chas. F. Millspaugh, Chicago; First Vice-President, Mrs. Frank A. Wade, Buffalo; Second Vice-President, Mrs. Basil Duke, Louisville; Secretary, Mrs. George T. Banzet, Chicago; Treasurer, Mrs. C. B. Whitnall, Milwaukee; Directors, Mrs. Sylvester Baxter, Boston; Mrs. W. J. Washburn, Los Angeles, Cal.; Mrs. H. D. Stearns, New Orleans, La.; Mrs. J. T. Hooper, Ashland, Wis.

The convention closed with a reception given by the Twentieth Century Club at its magnificent club house on Delaware avenue. Mrs. S. M. Clement, assisted by Mrs. C. J. Hamlin, Mrs. Dexter Rumsey, Mrs. Watson, Dr. and Mrs. Mann, and Miss Amelia Stevenson, received the delegates. An orchestra played, and refreshments were served from a table banked with sweet peas and ferns.

Here delegates met the new Buffalo members, and discussed further plans.

TRAINING A VINE WITHIN A PORTICO.
Possibilities of home grounds.

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The Summer School in Philanthropic Work.

BY

ARTHUR P. KELLOGG.

ALTHOUGH the practice of charity along scientific lines is not new, the study of philanthropy as a profession is a comparatively recent development. The enrollment this year in the sixth annual session of the Summer School in Philanthropic Work conducted by the Charity Organization Society of New York City, shows plainly the tendency of the college man and woman to make of philanthropy a life-work founded on careful preparation both theoretical and practical. Graduates of eighteen colleges and universities were enrolled among the forty members.

The Summer School stands for scientific grounding and training under experienced charity workers as the modern substitute for turning Lady Bountifuls loose in a city to gain their experience at the expense of the poor persons whom they would aid. Perhaps the explicit aim of the charity workers was best expressed at the sessions of the school by Mrs. John M. Glenn of Baltimore when she said: "We are adjusting children (and adults) to society; not merely relieving distress." Dr. Jeffrey R. Brackett of Johns Hopkins University, president of the National Conference of Charities and Correction, emphasized the aim of charity work as an effort to prevent the very poor from becoming destitute and to help the very poor to rise. In opening the school President Robert W. de Forest of the New York Charity Organization Society said that the charity of to-day is the old, old charity of the loving heart supervised and made effective by the temperate charity of the clear brain. Dean Hodges of Cambridge, Mass., contrasted the old charity and the new as the charity of good intentions and the charity of good results. Material relief, almsgiving, is only an incident in a comprehensive plan. The hand held out to the man who is down is more often a guide to health or appropriate occupation, or a spur to endeavor, than the disburser of the charity which gives old clothes and coal.

With plans for such activity in mind the members and graduates of the school have been firmly welded together as coworkers in a cause and have developed an *esprit de corps* frequently commented on at the reunion held at the close of the present term. It was found that leading charity workers in many of the largest societies in the country were alumni and appreciation of the benefits of the school was shown in the establishment by each class of a scholarship for each session during the first five years following its graduation. By this means there will be a large list of scholarships to be disposed of for some years to come, and it is expected that the number of graduates and their vital interest in the work will be materially increased.

To the members of the school the carefully devised system of receiving applications for aid, the scrupulous investigation of the recipient of the relief granted with a definitely anticipated result in the future, are made clear. Immediate distress is relieved and, by the same act, a basis established for overcoming the conditions which would naturally reproduce that distress.

Dr. Brackett declared that proper investigation is the essential fundamental in charity work. The right hand must know and approve of the doings of its mate. As worked out in its broadest application, investigation includes the research of the paid investigator, the offices

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ROBERT W. DE FOREST.
President New York Charity Organization Society.

of the volunteer friendly visitor, the forethought of the departmental or district agent, the supervision of the probation officer in the court of justice, and the detective work of the special agent who arrests and secures the conviction of the professional mendicant and fakir. There is firm repression of the unnecessary crutch and of the epileptic who throws a fit on the approach of benevolence, thus drying up the sources of true charity. But even here there is constructive work. The cripples and blind men who run elevators or sell papers, no inconsiderable number in New York, are tangible evidences of the results of a well-conducted mendicancy department. The shot which killed the officer of a repressive society and numerous convictions for mendicancy are others.

The investigation made wholly in a spirit of love and helpfulness, to pick for an unfortunate the right path and find means of reaching and keeping it, were emphasized by Rev. Anna Garlin Spencer of New York.

Three weeks were given to a study of the care and treatment of needy families in their homes. Methods in vogue in representative cities were explained by men and women who have worked them out. Dr. Brackett laid stress on the finding of substitutes for material relief, but urged that where immediate aid is needed it be administered quickly and persistently. If a work test be tried it should be bona fide—paying men for carrying old brick from one corner of a room to another and back again serves no good purpose. His experience has shown that the needy, in most cases, are lacking in equipment and efficiency; they need a larger and broader relief than the food and clothes and fuel with which charity in its absolute meaning is concerned.

Frederick Almy, general secretary of the Charity Organization Society of Buffalo, argued against public outdoor relief. His experience has strengthened the conviction that relief should be placed wholly in the hands of private agencies which administer it with greater care and secure thrice the results. "Public charity tends to run to excess. Politics and lack of intelligence on the part of officeholders contribute to this, but the chief cause is the attitude of the poor toward it. It has been proved beyond question that public outdoor relief, no matter how well administered, saps character and breeds indoor (institutional) relief. Almsgiving kills thrift."

For the other side, Frederick H. Wines of the New Jersey State Charities Aid Association, dealt a telling blow. He said: "Relief is not a favor, but a right. If it is not a right you have a right to refuse it, which is to destroy those who ask it, which is capital punishment without accusation or indictment or trial. So the laws of all States say that if there are no children or relatives to grant relief the poor or charity officer *must* do it. We cannot substitute private relief for public relief unless the private society is willing to assume all the responsibility of the public official. The final form of organized charity is public charity. It is the only form which requires all to contribute according to their means and absolutely guarantees relief to all who need it."

Philip W. Ayres, director of the school, pointed out the evils of a low standard of living among the immigrant poor. The

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Italian, used to an open air life in a warm climate, does not change his dietary habit of macaroni and tomato upon entering the crowded city life of a cold climate. That large numbers of Italian children have the rickets was traced as one result. The teaching of a desire for a better standard of living, to insure health, is not less important than finding means of earning the cost of improved living.

Further, along this line, was the address on medical charities by Dr. Lee K. Frankel, manager of the United Hebrew Charities. He has found wage earners particularly susceptible to some diseases. The varying forms of neurasthenia result from the hard grind to make ends meet, the lack of light in darkened lives. Complete nervous collapse is often unaccompanied by physical symptoms, and the brawny day laborer, entirely unfit for work, still looks his normal self. Nostalgia is particularly prevalent among immigrants, and sometimes develops into stubborn cases of melancholia and insanity. The Russian Jew is particularly liable to this because of the complete reversal of tradition and treatment in the new home.

Dr. David Blaustein, of the Educational Alliance, told of the efforts to Americanize the Jewish immigrant. The Jew from Russia cannot grasp his new social and political position. Parents and neighbors draw themselves into exclusive little communities with all the old habits, worship, language, and traditions. The children learn a new language and become Americans. "In two years they are advanced two centuries beyond their parents." The result is an ever widening gap which disrupts the Jewish family, hitherto the model of devotion and cohesiveness in all classes. Through classes and clubs and patriotic dramas the Educational Alliance seeks to bridge this gap. The Jew from Eastern Europe is the immigrant most inflexible in tradition and hardest to adapt to American life.

Of great interest was the week devoted to destitute, neglected, and delinquent children. The dominant note was the necessity for keeping homes together and the children in them. This reduces the proportion of children who would otherwise be sent to institutions. If the home cannot be preserved, or the children retained in it, the next move is toward placing out in other families, preferably in the country. The institution is the last resort, but as that it is a necessity and often a blessing. Its greatest good, said Homer Folks, commissioner of charities of New York City, is in having at its head a good man or woman whose character will be impressed on the children. Mr. Folks laid strong emphasis on viewing the child's life as a whole, not limiting the perspective to the short years within the institution. Mrs. Glendower Evans of Boston told of the system of supervision

PHILIP W. AYRES.

by which the Lyman School for Boys follows the lives of its charges. Legal control is obtained over them until they are twenty-one years of age. A merit marking system enables a boy to earn his way out of the institution in from one to four years. Within it his best friend has been a visitor who takes him in hand after his discharge. Usually the boy goes to a farm where the visitor frequently and unexpectedly calls. At the age of eighteen the farmer must give the boy a suit of clothes and fifty dollars in money, which the school invests for him. He is then free to seek employment and usually

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engages himself to the farmer at current wages. Even more interesting but better known was the talk which "Daddy" George gave on the George Junior Republic. His optimism in the future of the Republic and of its boys is inspiring. Results have been particularly good of late. Mr. George spoke of a recent reunion at which forty "former citizens" of the Republic were present. He ventured the opinion that discharged inmates of the usual reformatory for boys and girls did not hold reunions.

Much interest was manifested in a study of the prevention of tuberculosis, which is the most recent phase of the widely varied work of the New York Charity Organization Society. Dr. S. A. Knopf, an acknowledged authority, told of the consumptive poor in hot weather. Of the 30,000 cases of consumption in New York City 20,000 are in the tenements. Dr. Knopf advocated recreation piers, special steamers, and roof gardens on hospitals to be set aside for the consumptive poor. He emphasized the watchwords of those who are working in the campaign—that tuberculosis is communicable, preventable, curable. The consumptive needs some medicine, but most of all plenty of pure air, good food well cooked, cleanliness of person and surroundings, and out-of-door exercise. Miss Lillian Brandt, statistician of the tuberculosis committee, showed some statistical maps. The inference was plain that tuberculosis in New York rises in direct proportion with the density of population except as it is affected by race, living conditions, and occupation. Miss Brandt has shown that of the immigrant population Jews and Italians are quite free from tuberculosis, while Irish, Syrians, negroes, and Chinese are very susceptible. A map of "Chinatown," with marks to indicate deaths from tuberculosis since a record was first kept in 1894, shows a very high death rate. The curious fact was brought out that some houses are worse than others.

In one comparatively small tenement in Pell Street there have been thirty-seven deaths from tuberculosis in nine years. That the death rate is decreasing is held to be a result of improved housing conditions and of the campaign of education carried on by the Charity Organization Society and medical associations.

The great improvement in housing conditions in New York, which has been widely written about, was taken up in detail and illustrated by trips with tenement house inspectors on their rounds. Edward T. Devine, general secretary of the Charity Organization Society, pointed out that the original campaigning for this reform and the leading work for the maintenance of its integrity at the hands of the last State legislature was done by a committee of this society. The tenement house commissioner, Robert W. de Forest, is president of the Society and has just completed a term as president of the National Conference of Charities and Correction.

So much for the school to its members. To a spectator the significant teaching of the Summer School in Philanthropic Work is a birdseye view of the breadth and effectiveness of the activities of that modern charity which would prove itself adequate to the needs of a great city filled with all classes and many races; and a realization that of the men and women who administer this charity are required more than ordinary qualities and training. At the head of the largest and best known charitable societies of the principal cities are young college men (and a few women). They are of a caliber that promised success in any professoin, but chose philanthropy over the older and easier callings of law and medicine and the ministry. It was pointed out to the school that the person industrially or socially ill needs a better trained and more painstaking physician than one physically ill.

"PHIL MAY," the comic artist, who has for the last eight years been connected with *Punch* and the *Graphic*, died in London Aug. 5, when only 39 years old, but already illustrious enough to be named beside Leech, Keene, and Tenniel, those English princes of caricature. After Du Maurier's death, May was practically unrivaled in his field, so that Whistler—himself a master in color, whose death is also recorded this month—could safely sav, "Black and white in England means Phil May." May eschewed all color as well as completed line in humorous work, holding that "a

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comic sketch should not be elaborated any more than a joke," and thought that American comic artists erred in this regard. In fact, May used so few lines that to many persons his sketches appear unfinished. Yet, as a keen critic says, "His work has absolute finish, in that it represents the highest development of any art—telling something without superfluity. This is the art of the story teller; it should be equally that of the artist, and Mr. May possesses it in the highest possible degree. His ability to catch a type and put it on paper is marvelous. Whether he depicts a cavalryman, long-legged and overcoated; a costermonger in buttons, with a beery look on his face; a gin-sodden woman of the East End, or the wrinkled and aged children of Whitechapel, he places a complete picture before the eyes of his audience with the minimum of strokes."

This consummate art was not achieved without strenuous endeavor. May was born on April 22d, 1864, at Leeds, England. His parents were very poor, and at fifteen he was compelled to provide for his own maintenance as office boy to a lawyer, but his employer soon discovered that Phil was not cut out for a lawyer and sent him adrift. These were hard times for Phil and his family. When his "Gutter-Snipes" was published, he said to a friend: "Those sketches are all from memory, they really represent the gutter-snipes and games of Leeds, not London. I ought to know, for I was a gutter-snipe myself." Later, May joined a theatrical troupe where his weekly salary was only twelve shillings; but here he discovered his destiny by making comic portraits of the leading actors of his company and placed them in the shop-windows of the towns in which they played. He soon severed his connection with the strolling players and returned to Leeds, where he managed to earn his living by making sketches for a local newspaper.

CARICATURE OF PHIL MAY BY HIMSELF.

CARICATURE OF PHIL MAY BY HIMSELF.

In 1882, May went to London and made several water-color sketches of well-known actors for an illustrated magazine, but received no pay for them. He next sent several drawings to the *St. Stephen's Review* and for several months afterward was a regular contributor to it. He also designed theatrical costumes for the *Penny Illustrated Paper*. The struggling young artist was no longer hungry and homeless. When he had reached his twentieth year, he went to Australia and there worked for the Sydney *Bulletin*, raising it to be the funniest paper in the world. Three years later he returned to London and in 1891

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THE FIRST SMOKE

published his "Parson and the Painter." This work had a large sale, and from that time May's success was assured.

In characterizing May's art, Mr. M. H. Spielmann, the well-known editor of the *Magazine of Art,* wrote: "Mr. May is, above all things, a humorist, and neither a politician nor a reformer, nor even, if properly understood, a satirist. His aim is to show men and things as they are, seen through a curtain of fun and raillery—not as they might or ought to be. Yet the essence of his work is truth, inexorable truth; and his version of life is depicted to a grateful public with the unerring pencil of a laughing philosopher. And, moreover, his greatest quality is the astounding excellence of his draughtsmanship; and such excellence, so far from being germane to caricature, is not only unnecessary to it, but sometimes even a hindrance.

Mr. May then, correctly speaking, is a humorist; and not only a humorist in his choice of subject and in his way of seeing things, but emphatically so in the method he employs in setting them before us. His drawing, his very lines, are often funny. As you look in admiration, and sometimes

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in amazement, at the consummate artistry of this draughtsmanship, you become instinctively aware how genuinely comic are the lines themselves. You can often cover up the heads of his figures, yet find plenty to laugh at in the mere realization and drawing of their limbs and clothes, the humor appearing not only in the twist of an arm or the cut of a pair of trousers, but in the very lines which compass them round about."

May was not a rapid worker and did not "dash off" his sketches as one could easily suppose. He took infinite pains with his drawings, and for every published picture made sometimes as many as a dozen sketches.

Mr. May's "Parson and the Painter" was so successful that he followed it with "Phil May's Annual," which has been published every year since 1892. In 1896, he also published "Phil May's Sketch Book" and "Phil May's A, B, C." Upon receiving his appointment on the *Punch* staff, he wrote to a friend: "I joined the *Punch* staff last week, and dined with them Thursday and carved my name on the scroll of fame—I mean the dining table. It has made me awfully happy."

May received no regular training in art, but acquired his fine draughtsmanship by constantly sketching from life. When but a boy in Leeds he drew portraits of the people for a shilling a copy. He also sketched in water-colors and did little posters. Linley Sambourne's work early influenced him, but he tells us that he never copied anyone.

Phil May married in 1884, and of late had lived in a magnificent house in Holland Park Road, once occupied by Lord Leighton. His beautiful studio was filled with bric-a-brac, its walls adorned with pictures by well-known artists, and its marble floors covered with rich oriental rugs. He possessed a lively temperament and was a "good fellow" in the full sense of the term, steeped in humor and seeing the funny side of everything he met. His Bohemian life probably reinforced the phthisis that brought him to death, but he also remembered the poor with a goodly portion of the princely salary he earned during his later years.

F. E. WASKA.

POPE PIUS X., SARTO, GIUSEPPE.—On August 5, the fifth day of the conclave, Cardinal Sarto was chosen as the successor to Leo XIII. He was unanimously elected at the seventh ballot, and is the two hundred and sixty-fourth in the line of Supreme Pontiffs. His election was a surprise, although it had been predicted by Pope Leo. Foremost among the leading candidates were Cardinals Rampolla and Vannutelli, but the following of each was so strong that neither could win, so a compromise man was selected to fill the papal chair. While all acknowledge Sarto's eminent fitness for the place, it is said that he was chosen because be belonged to neither of the factions at Rome—his aloofness from Vatican politics made him acceptable to both sides. His choice was approved by the powers. It was an honor that the Venetian patriarch did not seek, and when he greeted his colleagues for the first time as Pope Pius X. he said: "It is a cross that I receive from you."

The prelate who has been elevated to the papal throne is a man of learning, eloquence, and piety. Through a long career —he is now sixty-eight—he has served the Church faithfully as priest, bishop, patriarch, and cardinal. In all the offices that he has held he showed good judgment and administrative ability of a high

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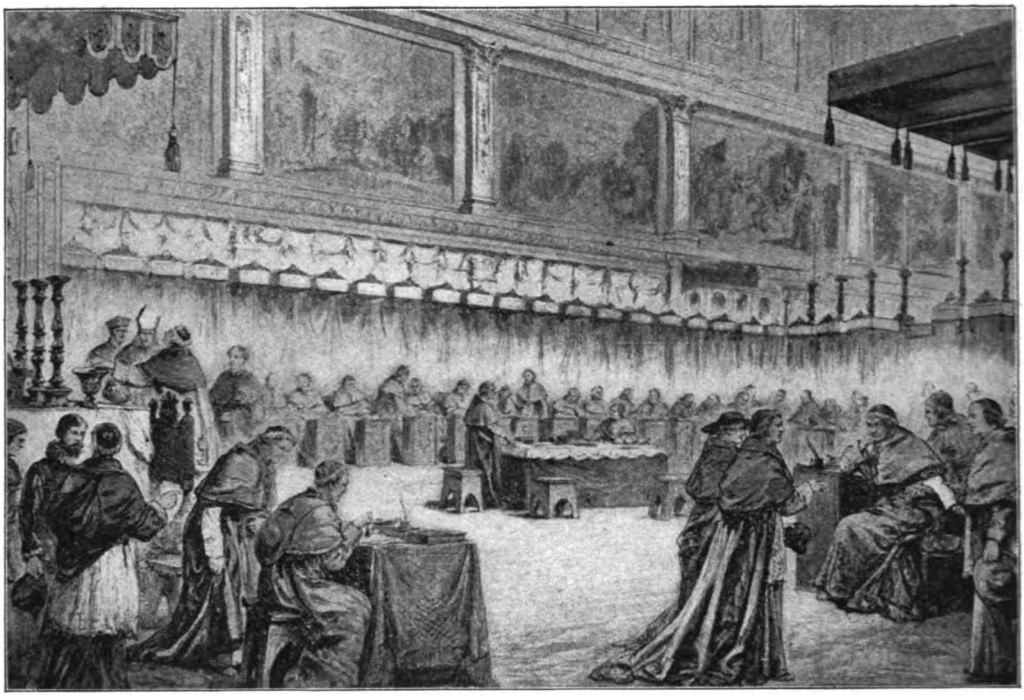

THE ELECTION OF A POPE. THE CARDINALS IN CONCLAVE VOTING IN THE SISTINE CHAPEL.

order. He has simple tastes, caring nothing for magnificence. He is tall, with a sturdy figure and pleasing presence. He came up from the people and has democratic tastes. He has the qualities of a spiritual leader, and no prelate of Italy is more popular. In Venice, his home the past twelve years, he is greatly beloved. His rise from the lowest to the highest position in the gift of the Roman Catholic Church is due to the character and personality of the man, not to wealth or family influence. It may be confidently expected that Pius X. has before him many years of useful service and that he will rank among the great popes.

Giuseppe Sarto was born at Riesi, a town of 4,000 inhabitants, in northern Italy, June 2, 1835. He belonged to a humble family, one of eight children, two sons and six daughters. One of his sisters is a dressmaker, and his brother is a shopkeeper. Giuseppe (Joseph) was educated at Treviso and Padua. In 1858, at the age of twenty-three, he was ordained priest at Castel Franco, and for nine years he acted as coadjutor to the parish priest of Tombolo, a village in the province of Padua. Here he labored zealously, and by his unfailing kindness and self-sacrifice won the affection of his people, to whom he was deeply attached.

Promotion came in 1867, when he was appointed parish priest at Salzano, a town of 3,541 inhabitants. At the age of forty he gained the recognition of his superiors and he was made chancellor of the Treviso bishopric. He was successively elected spiritual director of the Treviso seminary, judge of the ecclesiastical tribunal (1882), and vicar general.

In 1884 he was consecrated bishop of Mantua. His opportunity to distinguish himself had come and he improved it. He devoted himself to the affairs of his diocese, seldom going to Rome and not mixing in papal politics. He preached every Sunday, and his sermons produced a marked impression. He made many changes, increased the revenues of the parishes under him, and did much to prevent strife. He developed into an excellent bishop and gained the warm friendship of Pope Leo.

In 1893 he was chosen patriarch of Venice, a more exalted office than that of bishop. "He there distinguished himself as a thorough reformer, suppressing all

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abuses, restoring the dignity of the clergy, and the earnestness of religion." There was a clash over the patriarch appointment between the Pope and the Italian government, but the matter was satisfactorily settled. He succeeded in keeping the respect of the Italian cabinet and became a favorite with King Humbert. When the king was in Venice, a few years later, Sarto paid him a visit of state. Although he had received a hint from the Vatican disapproving the visit, he followed his own inclinations. He is said to be on cordial terms with King Emmanuel.

In 1894 he was made cardinal and "assigned to the prefecture of the congregation of Sacred Rites, Indulgences and Relics, in which office he showed an extraordinary circumspection and even skepticism, destroying unauthentic relics by the score and proving himself a merciless critic of superstition."

Maud Howe, writing in *The Outlook* (August 1) on "Who Will Be the Next Pope," says that there are three distinct parties in the Church of Rome—"the Party of Action, the Party of Inaction, and the Italian Party." Sarto was the candidate of the Italian Party, which stands midway between the progressive and conservative elements in the Church. "He is one of the most popular of the cardinals, and is much beloved by the Venetians. He is a prudent, correct, well-balanced man. While never directly opposing the policy of Leo XIII., he is noted for his abstinence from all aggressive action, and his influence is always exerted to keep the peace between the opposing factions."

Sarto's election is a victory for progress. It is said that he has disapproved the policy of the Vatican to have no intercourse with the Quirinal. He urged Leo to recognize the king and to acquiesce in the loss of temporal power. It is believed that he will find a *modus vivendi* that will satisfy the claims of both Church and State. Such is the view of Bishop Fitzgerald, of Arkansas, who represents the liberal wing of the Catholic Church in this country. "It seems apparent," he says, "that the new pope will be *persona grata* with the Italian authorities, and that the election is a victory for Venice rather than the Rome party in the Church, between which factions there has been some rivalry. With the accession of the new pope the pontiff may cease to be the 'prisoner of the Vatican.'" EUGENE PARSONS.

RAILROAD FARTHEST NORTH.—July 14 a railroad was opened that is destined to do much for Scandinavian and English commerce and manufactures. Because the Baltic freezes, England's capitalists, wanting a supply of Swedish iron all the year round, have built a railroad from the mines, or iron-ore deposits, near Gellivare to Ofoten on the coast of Norway. King Oscar of Sweden and Norway was among those in attendance at the opening. For some time ore had been carried on a branch of the road to the Norwegian fiord from the mines or hills of Kirunavara and Narwik. Gellivare is an inland town of Sweden, nearly 50 miles north of the Arctic Circle. It is the center of vast forests and iron-filled hills. It is much nearer to Lulea, a port on the Gulf of Bothnia, whither, were it not for the long winters, its wood and iron would naturally go; but the Gulf of Bothnia, a bay of the Baltic, is closed to navigation for four or five months of each year. Russia's tireless efforts to get a better seaport than St. Petersburg are due to a similar cause. That city is on the Gulf of Finland, another arm of the Baltic that is closed with ice for five months in each year. English enterprise and English capital have done and are destined to do much in the development of Scandinavia's resources—particularly those helpful to English industries. The long, severe winters of the Arctic are being conquered. The tourist is to be taken in summertime, at least, into the wild regions over which the road passes. It is singular that somewhat similar conditions confront England in her Labrador iron regions and that a proposition has been made to overcome them in the same way by building a road to the mines. It is thought that it might be made to pay in more ways than one; for Labrador (parts of it, at least), like vast regions in Scandinavia, is covered with primeval forests—woods rich in the very best kind of building material. With the price of wood rapidly rising, it may pay Labrador to put railroads far into her forests.

The foregoing information was summarized from various trade publications by the United States Bureau of Statistics.

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Life Among the Sambos of Nicaragua.

BY

JOHN L. COWAN.

IT is probably no exaggeration to say that not one in twenty of the Sambos of the Mosquito Coast of Nicaragua has ever slept in bed, and that not more than one in ten has ever owned a piece of money. That they dispense with these two necessities of civilization shows better than a column of description the difference between their manner of life and ours. For money they have but little use. Nature produces everything necessary for their maintenance, and if they desire anything not obtainable at first hand from nature's storehouse, they can readily obtain it by barter. Cocoa beans are the common medium of exchange, and pass as readily from hand to hand as do dimes and nickels in the north. Their wants are few and easily satisfied. Discontent and ambition have not yet entered their paradise. And if it be true that the love of money is the root of all evil, they must still be in a condition of pristine innocence. To one brought up in the orthodox worship of the Almighty Dollar, their utter lack of faith is simply appalling.

Beds are regarded as still more useless than money, their place being supplied by hammocks. In this respect, however, the Sambos are not peculiar. All Central America sleeps in hammocks, and has done so for uncounted ages. Even the foreigner soon forgets the four-poster of his ancestors and swings himself between heaven and earth after the manner of the aborigines.

The Sambos, Moscos, or Mosquitos, as they are variously called, are a curious mixture of Caucasian, African, and Indian blood. Greytown and Bluefields at an early date became the rendezvous of Scotch, English, and French pirates. From time to time these were joined by runaway slaves from the mines and plantations owned by the Spaniards, the slaves being warmly welcomed for the double reason that their physical powers, their hatred of their former masters, and their lack of scruples of conscience made them ideal pirates, and that their knowledge of the Spanish settlements enabled them to give invaluable information. The pirates, both black and white, mingled freely and intermarried readily with the Indians; and from this incongruous parentage are the Sambos of to-day descended. African and Indian traits generally predominate, although occasionally a blue-eyed, fair-haired individual betrays his British ancestry.

Most famous of the Mosquito pirates were Morgan and De Lussan. In 1670 the former crossed the Isthmus with 1,100 men, and captured, sacked, and burned the city of Panama, through which then passed all the treasures of the Incas *en route* to Spain. For years 2,000 mules were constantly employed in transporting the prodigious wealth of Peru from Panama to Puerto Bello, so that the buccaneers must have captured an enormous treasure on this occasion.

When the trade of piracy became too dangerous to retain its attractiveness, the surviving buccaneers retired with the Indians to the unfrequented regions on the Mosquito Coast, abandoning the settlements of Greytown and Bluefields to the planters and tradesmen who began to come in as soon as law and order were established.

About the middle of the eighteenth century the authorities of Jamaica appealed to the Sambos for aid in protecting the plantations and settlements of that island from the attacks of the Maroons, or runaway slaves. For more than half a century the Maroons were a constant menace to the English colonists of Jamaica, and during that period the Sambos frequently rendered invaluable assistance in the civil wars. The friendly relations thus

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SAMBO INDIANS OF NICARAGUA.

established were later made the pretext for the establishment of a protectorate by Great Britain over the entire coast, thus demonstrating that it is as dangerous to grant as to refuse favors to Great Britain. But for the vigorous protests of the United States, and the evident intention of the Washington Government to enforce the Monroe Doctrine at any cost, the whole coast from British Honduras to the San Juan River would have become British territory.

The Sambos are ruled by a king, who acknowledges the suzerainty of the Nicaraguan government, and receives a pension therefrom. However, he is by no means a figurehead. His authority is recognized by all the villages and settlements between the Huesco and Rama rivers, a distance of more than 150 miles. In the frequent revolutionary disturbances, it sometimes happens that he holds the real balance of power, and is able to dictate terms to the rival contestants for the presidency. As might be expected, he is a reactionary. He views the encroachments of civilization and the influx of foreigners with uneasiness and distrust, and directs all his energies to maintain the present status of affairs. It is mainly due to his influence that so little has been done towards the development of the forest, agricultural, and mineral resources of the Mosquito Coast. He has thus far been able effectively to veto the granting of desirable concessions to foreign capitalists, and has thus confined the work of civilization within his territories to the immediate vicinity of Greytown and Bluefields.

But once since the abortive attempt at British occupation has Nicaragua's sovereignty over the Mosquito Coast been threatened; and that time the danger was from an American source. In 1855, Walker, with a force of 15,000 filibusters, made an attempt to found a slave holding country modeled after the Cotton States of the South. It has been said of him that he possessed all the qualities necessary to fit him for either a throne or the gibbet. He seized Grenada, then the capital of the country; secured the election of a National Assembly subservient to his wishes; and dictated the passage of the laws he desired. His success seemed assured, when Costa Rica and Guatemala, taking alarm at this attempt of a foreign usurper to remodel the government and institutions of a Central American country, took up arms against him. At the same time the Nicaraguans rose in revolt. In 1857 he capitulated to the united forces of his enemies, his life

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A SAMBO VILLAGE IN NICARAGUA.

being spared on condition that he leave Central America forever. However, the brief authority he had enjoyed led him to make another attempt to win an empire. In 1860 he returned with a few adventurous spirits like himself, with the object of fomenting another revolution. He was captured in Honduras and executed with but little ceremony. Almost his last words were to the effect that he had tried to fight the battle of the American slaveholders abroad, but that they had failed to stand by him as they had promised; and that ere long they would have to fight the same battle unaided at home,—a prediction that was destined to early fulfillment.

Although the Mosquito Coast is now a wilderness, dotted here and there with a squalid Sambo village, the entire region abounds in ruined temples and cities, broken idols, crumbling pyramids, and desecrated tombs, showing that it was once inhabited by a numerous and enlightened population. Unfortunately, the ignorant and bigoted vandalism of the Spaniards led them to destroy or deface most of these prehistoric monuments, which are for this reason not nearly so well preserved as those in the more remote and inaccessible regions of Guatemala, Yucatan, and Honduras.

In the immediate vicinity of Bluefields and Greytown are some of the most extensive plantations of bananas in the world. Sugar, coffee, and cocoa are also grown to a considerable extent; and a large amount of rubber is gathered in the forests. The only manufacturing industries carried on by the Indians are in the neighborhood of the towns, where earthenware vessels, hammocks, cloth, and leather are made, not only for local consumption, but for export to the West Indies and to the neighboring republics.

The hope of Greytown that it might become the Suez of the New World by being made the Atlantic terminus of the interoceanic canal has been blasted by the action of the United States Congress, and it seems probable that the town will always remain but an obscure and insignificant way station. The idea of a canal through the Isthmus at this point was first advanced by one of the buccaneer leaders, Edwards David by name. In 1781 the Spanish government undertook a survey of the route; and after Nicaragua had achieved her independence the National Assembly decreed the immediate construction of the canal. Unfortunately, it takes more than the "decree" of a fifth-rate power to accomplish a work of such magnitude; and, although more than one hundred schemes of the same nature have been brought forward within the last hundred years, the Nicaraguan canal seems a long way in the future.

Greytown is a cluster of little white wooden houses, surrounded by vast swampy tracts alternately flooded with water and covered with mud. The port is without a natural harbor, but a jetty sys-

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tem, similar to that at the mouth of the Mississippi, 4,320 feet long, has enabled the San Juan River to scour out a channel 7 or 8 feet deep, which permits the small vessels engaged in the fruit-carrying trade to approach quite close to the shore. Larger steamers, however, must anchor far out at sea, and are loaded and unloaded by means of lighters.

Although the largest of the Central American republics, Nicaragua is the most thinly populated. All the important towns and centers of population are on or near the Pacific. As long as the Sambos and their ultra-conservative monarch remain in control of the Caribbean coast, it is hard to see how much progress can be made towards civilization.

SKYSCRAPER MADE OF CONCRETE.—As you stand at the corner of Fourth and Vine streets, Cincinnati, and watch the builders at work upon the Ingalls Concrete building, what most strikes attention is the absence of visible steel. You know it is to be a "skyscraper" of seventeen stories, yet it bears no resemblance to a sister skyscraper, whose skeleton of steel is plainly visible. The method of construction is a novel one; so much out of the ordinary, indeed, that thousands pause, watch the construction of the first concrete skyscraper and ask numerous questions concerning the work.

In the accompanying illustration three stages of work may be seen. Crowning the embryo skyscraper are seen the strange, box-like arrangements in which the concrete is hardening; immediately below this the black tarred walls of concrete from which the wooden casings have just been removed; and, finally, the layer of white marble slowly incasing the lower portion. The concrete, of which the structure is being erected, consists of one part cement, two parts sand, and four parts crushed limestone. At the bottom of the deep cellar a large mixer revolves by steam power, turning out about a cubic yard of concrete every five minutes. This is then raised to the proper point for construction on a steam hoist. After the concrete is poured into the wooden casings for the columns, it is thoroughly stamped so as to drive out all the air.

Steel bars form part of the construction of each concrete column. Round bars, several inches in diameter, are placed near the center of the column for the sake of compression. Near the outer edges of the column are found numerous cold-twisted steel bars, which are known as "wind-bars" and give tensile strength in resisting the pressure of the wind.

Such a building of concrete is exceedingly massive and will be able to sustain an enormous weight. The builders claim the lower floor will safely sustain from 800 to 1,000 pounds per square foot; and the upper floors, which are guaranteed to sustain 100 pounds per square foot, will easily carry 400 to 500 pounds.

Steel-constructed buildings are claimed to be fireproof, but after a fire in a steel building it will be seen that the heat has warped the steel, which then becomes shapeless and useless. A concrete building, however, deserves the name of being fireproof, for even though a fire destroy the small amount of interior woodwork, the concrete structure will be unaffected by the flames. And as to corrosion, the steel bars inside the concrete columns are inaccessible to air and moisture and, therefore, cannot corrode. It must be remembered that the floors, as well as the columns, are constructed of concrete. Twisted bars of steel are placed about four inches apart, then steel bars crosswise to the former about the same distance apart—this forms the basis for the concrete floors. As you walk across the finished concrete floors and see nothing but concrete above, below, and on every side, you wonder how fire is ever going to damage this twentieth-century structure. Surely, it ought to last for ages!

P. C. HENRY.

SLEEP.—Six months of experimentation, conducted by Dr. Sancte de Sanctis and D. U. Neyroz, investigators of the University of Rome, have shown that few people realize how the soundness of sleep fluctuates through the night. In four healthy subjects the soundest sleep occurred within an hour and a half after dropping off. During that period unconsciousness increased rapidly. Through the next half hour it diminished greatly. Thereafter, surprising oscillations were detected. Usually, the lightest sleep occurred about five hours after the beginning. In the next two hours came a short, low, secondary maximum of intensity.

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Socialism in Germany.

BY

A. M. SIMONS,
Editor "International Socialist Review."

THE present organization of the German Social Democracy dates from the Congress of Gotha, held in May, 1875. To be sure, a Socialist movement had existed for more than a score of years previously, and had cast over 100,000 votes for Socialist candidates. The Socialist forces had, however, been divided into two fiercely contending factions, the Marxists, or Eisenachers, and Lassalians. At the Congress of Gotha these two factions were united, and from that time to the present there have been no breaks in the line of organization. It is worthy of note that this union was to no small extent due to the persecution of Bismarck. This was the first of many debts which the German Socialists have owed to the same unwilling helper. The common persecution drove the two factions together. There were 125 delegates representing 25,659 members present at this first Congress.

AUGUST BEBEL.
Leader of the Socialists in Germany.

From this time on the growth of the party was extremely rapid. Two years later it cast over half a million votes. Frightened at this result, Bismarck redoubled his efforts to crush Social Democracy. Twice he attempted to force a law through the Reichstag which would suppress Socialist organizations and outlaw their members, but, subservient as that body had usually been to him, it rebelled at being called upon to make an outrageous attack upon public liberty. Fortunately for Bismarck's plan, two attacks were made upon the life of the emperor by fanatics. No one to-day would dare to allege that these attacks were in any way traceable to the Socialists; and, indeed, there are many reasons to believe that one of them, at least, was much more likely to have been incited by Bismarck himself. Nevertheless, he used these to the full extent to inflame public opinion. In the midst of the excitement he dissolved the Reichstag. In the election that followed he succeeded in securing a legislative body absolutely subservient to his will. Incidentally, he succeeded also in fixing upon a portion of the press of Germany the name "reptile press," which has stuck to it even to this day as indicating its grovelling subserviency to his power. In introducing the bill, which afterwards became a law, Bismarck said, among other things: "What is wanted is a special enactment which shall subject the right of association and public meeting. the freedom of the press, and the following of particular trades, as well as the liberty of removal from one place to another, to

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such limitations as shall exclusively operate against the dangerous aims of Social Democracy."

This law directly prohibited "all Social-Democratic, Socialist, or Communistic societies." It provided for the closest police supervision of labor organizations, or societies for mutual benefit composed of workers. All Socialist meetings were of course prohibited and all Socialist newspapers suppressed and their property confiscated or destroyed. Bebel, who was then in the Reichstag, twitted Bismarck on this confiscation of public property as being an infraction of the rights of private property as whose champion Bismarck was then posing. The circulation or possession of Socialist literature was made a crime, and all attempts to spread Socialist doctrines either by word of mouth, or otherwise, were punishable by fine and imprisonment. When the ordinary machinery of law proved insufficient the government was authorized to proclaim a "minor state of siege" over any district and to call in the military and practically establish military law. This was actually done in Berlin and several other leading cities. Under the "law of exception," as this infamous measure came to be known, thousands of Socialists were imprisoned and thousands more were practically exiled. Many of them came to America, where they helped found the Socialist movement of this country. The Socialists decided that any attempt at resistance to the law would be to invite annihilation by the military power, and so the policy of "shamming dead" was determined upon. So thoroughly was this shamming carried out that the government press was for a long time deceived and declared with great exultation that Socialism was dead in Germany. But while nothing appeared upon the surface, a tremendous secret propoganda was operating in every corner of the empire. *The Social Democrat*, published in Switzerland, was made the official organ and attained a circulation of 12,000, of which 8,000 were regularly circulated in Germany. When it is understood that each copy was passed from hand to hand so as to reach a great number of readers with the least possible chance of exposure, it will be understood that this was equivalent to probably ten times that circulation attained by ordinary methods. A large publishing house also located in Switzerland was kept busy turning out pamphlets and other literature for secret distribution. As a means of collecting funds and determining who were entitled to membership an innocuous little paper called *Der Wähler* was circulated at 5 cents a copy. Taking into consideration the difficulties confronted, and the short time during which it was developed, it seems safe to say that it was the most effective and remarkable work of organization ever accomplished. Some idea of its extent and the forces at its

PAUL SINGER.
Socialist member of the German Reichstag.

disposal is shown by the fact that on the final repeal of the law, the first published account showed that August Bebel, who had acted as treasurer of the party had in his hands a balance of 171,820.09 marks. It is no wonder that the German Socialists declare that their present magnificent organization is due in no small degree to the persecution that it underwent at this period. So far from being crushed politically, it grew from half a million votes in 1877 to 1,427,298 in 1890. When this strength had been reached, further attempts at suppression became ridic-

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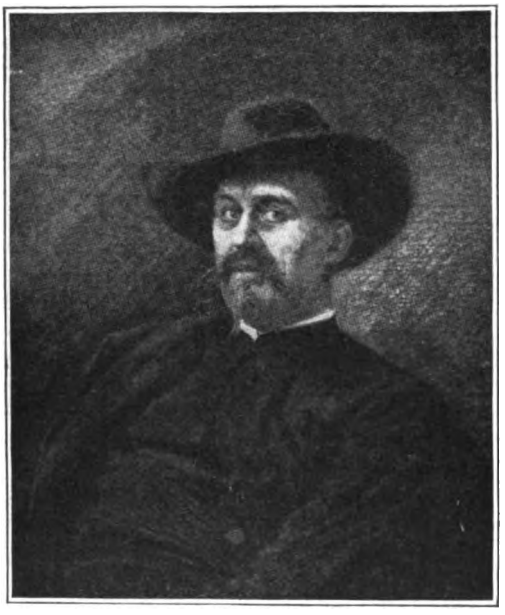
ulous. It was impossible to treat the members of the strongest political party in the empire as outlaws.

The present emperor came to the throne at this time and sought to pose as the great friend of the workingman. He wished also to rid himself of Bismarck who had come to occupy a position altogether too much like that of the Mayors of the Palace under the Merovingian Kings to suit the Emperor. So it was that he made his now famous speech to the Minister: "Leave the Social Democrats to me; I can easily deal with them." The "laws of exception" were at once repealed, although subsequent events have shown that a large portion of this repeal was only nominal, and that the Socialists still occupied a very different position before the law from that of the other German political parties. This fact of governmental hostility with a limited freedom of discussion and assemblage has had much to do with the present form of organization of the Social Democratic party of Germany. Since this party has succeeded in combining absolute democratic control by the membership, with perfect centralized management for executive work, into the most effective political organization in existence, a fuller examination of its make-up is well worth while.



HERR VON VOLLMAR.
Prominent Socialist in Germany.

Any person, man or woman, who accepts the principles as set forth in the party platform and agrees to serve the party according to his strength may become a party member. The party members in each locality have complete jurisdiction as to the admission of members, subject only to an appeal to the directors of the party, or to a general congress. Each year the members of the party in each electoral district nominate one or more delegates to the congress, which has general control of the interests of the party. This congress, which is the supreme governmental body of the party, is composed of six delegates from each electoral district, the Socialist members of the Reichstag and the members of the executive committee of the party. The members of the Reichstag and the executive committee have a voice only in those matters which relate to preliminary action and the conduct of party affairs. The congress has the following functions:

1. To receive the report of work performed by parliamentary representatives.
2. To determine the location of the executive committee of the party.
3. To appoint the members of that committee.
4. To pass resolutions with regard to the organization of the party and on all matters affecting party life.
5. To take action upon such other propositions as may be submitted to it.

The executive committee is composed of twelve persons, two presidents, two secretaries, a treasurer and seven directors.

The members of this committee are not necessarily delegates to the congress.

Perhaps the most important feature of the organization is one that is not recognized in its written constitution, but which it inherited from the days of the "laws of exception." These are the "Vertrauensmänner" or "trusted men." These men are elected by mass meetings of the party members in the different localities. There is generally one for each electoral district, although, if the movement is strong in any locality, several may be elected. These men are charged with the work of organizing their locality, carrying on the propaganda and the collection of dues from members. As representatives of their

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locality they enter into such relations as may be necessary with the executive committee and with other branches of the party organization. They call all meetings, public and private, of the party, and have a general supervision of the party papers published in their electoral district. In short, they are the real machinery through which the party work is carried on. In addition there are in most localities societies organized directly for political purposes, although police hostility renders their action extremely difficult. There are also educational organizations, singing societies, gymnastic clubs, debating societies, people's theaters, bicycle and social clubs, etc., in great numbers, which, while not directly connected with the party, are composed of party members and assist in party work. These are especially numerous in the city of Berlin. A recent investigation by a newspaper correspondent is said to have revealed the fact that a majority of all workingmen encountered upon the streets on a Sunday morning were found to be going to some one of the various forms of entertainment afforded by the Socialists of that city. As was stated above, this remarkable political machine is thus seen to afford at the same time a complete, centralized authority where needed, together with the utmost democratization for purposes of deliberation and the decision of questions of general interest. That such an instrument could be effective no one who studies its make-up can doubt. That it is effective the election results prove with most striking testimony. An example of what it could do was given when, some time ago, nearly a half million leaflets were distributed throughout the city of Berlin within twenty-four hours by volunteer workers, who were compelled to avoid the police while doing the distributing; and yet but two men were arrested.

One feature of this organization that has attracted much attention is the work done by the women Socialists. It is a fundamental principle of Socialism that no distinction must be made between the sexes as to the right of participating in political activity. The laws of most of the German states, however, prohibit the presence of women at political gatherings and forbid their becoming members of political organizations. While open connection is thus rendered impossible the women are really only a little less completely organized than the men. On the 20th of last April a special organization of women for the Reichstag election was founded in Berlin. This organization soon spread throughout the country and the work that it performed during the campaign has attracted a great amount of attention. The Associated Press dispatches noted as specially remarkable that a large percentage of the 7,000 workers who in Berlin on election day assisted in bringing voters to the polls for the Socialist party were women. That some action was necessary in order to bring out voters is shown by the fact that it is estimated that the stay-at-home vote in Germany amounts to about five million, or about 40 per cent. of the vote cast. This body of people, which has been termed the "partyless party," is one which, nevertheless, has considerable influence in political affairs. The majority of observers agree that it is largely composed of those who are in some degree hostile to the present government, but who do not find political action satisfactory as an expression of their ideas.

It is perhaps in the collection of funds that the Social Democracy showed to the best its perfect organization. A working-class party must necessarily depend upon small contributions, which are notoriously difficult of collection and accumulation in one place. Nevertheless, some weeks before the election, the Socialists had already accumulated the largest campaign fund ever gathered by any political party in Germany. This fact was a cause of very fierce attacks by the other parties, who declared that this showed either that the Social Democratic party was not a workingman's party or else that the workingmen were in a much better position than the Socialists alleged. It was shown however, that these sums had been gathered from hundreds of thousands of givers, and that the amount received from any one person was, with few exceptions, very small. All contributions to the campaign fund were published regularly in the *Vorwaerts,* and when there was noticed one contribution of 30,000 marks from "an intellectual sympathizer," the governmental press shouted with great glee. The Socialists, however, replied by daring

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KARL KAUTSKY.
Editor of "Die Neue Zeit."

them to follow the example of the Socialists and publish their campaign funds together with their expenditures. This they naturally declined to do.

The Socialist press of Germany is particularly strong. The *Vorwaerts,* which is published in Berlin, is one of the most important daily papers in the empire. Its publication is a source of considerable income to the party, which income is largely devoted to the support of weaker papers in other localities.

There are two important scientific Socialist publications, *Die Neue Zeit,* of which Karl Kautsky is the editor, representing the revolutionary Marxian wing, and the *Monatshefte,* edited by Edward Bernstein, which represents what is known as the Opportunist or Revisionist wing. Two comic papers, *Der Wahre Jacob* and the *Sued-Deutsche Postillion,* have a large circulation and fill their peculiar field.

When we come to examine the issues for which the party stands we find them identical with those held by Socialists the world over. Indeed, since the German Socialists were almost the first to promulgate those principles, the claim which is sometimes made by them that the Socialist parties of other countries derived their doctrines from the writings and official declarations of the German Socialists is not wholly without foundation.

The American press has spread the idea that the German Socialists are in some way different from the Socialists in America. This is particularly absurd in view of the fact that, for many years and to some extent to this day, the Socialist movement in America was controlled by the same men who formulated the German Socialist platforms, and were driven to this country by hostile legislation, or came here for other reasons later.

Until very recently the propaganda literature of the American Socialist movement has, to a quite large extent, consisted of translations from the literature of German Socialism. This fact has led the same press that is now denying the existence of any resemblance between the American and the German Socialist parties to allege that the American Socialist movement was a "German importation."

The press of this country has published what purports to be a platform of the demands of the German Social Democracy. This consists of a series of very mild and almost silly demands. So far as I have been able to find out, this platform was constructed out of absolutely whole cloth, in this country, or by American newspaper correspondents located in Germany. It certainly has no relation whatever, except in the most remote way, to any official document of the German Social Democracy. This party stands upon the "Erfurter Programme" adopted October 20, 1891. This program has been, to a large extent, the model upon which platforms of the Socialist parties of all countries, including that of the United States, have been constructed. The following quotations from this platform will give the true position of the German Social Democracy:

"Nothing but the conversion of capitalist private ownership of the means of production—the earth and its fruits, mines and quarries, raw material, tools and machines, means of exchange—into social ownership, and the substitution of Socialist production, carried on by and for society in the place of the present production of commodities for exchange, can effect such a revolution that, instead of the

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large industries and the steadily growing capacities of common production being, as hitherto, a source of misery and oppression to the classes whom they have despoiled, they may become a source of the highest well-being and of perfect harmony.

"The German Social Democrats are not, therefore, fighting for new class privileges and rights, but for the abolition of class government, and even of classes themselves, and for universal equality in rights and duties, without distinction of sex or rank. Holding these views, they are not merely fighting against the exploitation and oppression of the wage-earners in the existing social order, but against every kind of exploitation and oppression, whether directed against class, party, sex, or race."

Starting from these principles, the German Social Democrats demand, to begin with:

I. Universal, equal, and direct suffrage by ballot in all elections for all subjects of the empire over twenty years of age, without distinction of sex. Proportional representation and, until this system has been introduced, fresh division of electoral districts by law after each census. Two years' duration of the legislature. Holding of elections on a legal day of rest. Payment of the representatives elected. Removal of all restrictions upon political rights, except in the case of persons under age.

II. Direct legislation by the people by means of the right of initiative and of veto. Self-government by the people in the empire, state, province, and commune. Election of magistrates by the people with the right of holding them responsible. Annual vote of the taxes.

III. Universal military education. Substitution of militia for a standing army. Decision by the popular representatives of questions of peace and war. Decision of all international disputes by arbitration.

IV. Abolition of all laws that restrict or suppress free expression of opinion and the right of meeting or association.

V. Abolition of all laws that place the woman, whether in a private or a public capacity, at a disadvantage as compared with the man.

VI. Declaration that religion is a private matter. Abolition of all expenditure from public funds upon ecclesiastical and religious objects. Ecclesiastical and religious bodies are to be regarded as private associations, which order their affairs independently.

VII. Secularization of education. Compulsory attendance at public national schools. Free education, free supply of educational apparatus, and free maintenance to children in schools and to such pupils, male and female, in higher educational institutions, as are judged to be fitted for further education.

VIII. Free administration of the law and free legal assistance. Administration of the law by judges elected by the people. Appeal in criminal cases. Compensation to persons accused, imprisoned, or condemned unjustly. Abolition of capital punishment.

IX. Free medical assistance and free supply of remedies. Free burial of the dead.

X. Graduated income and property tax to meet all public expenses that are to be met by taxation. Self-assessment. Succession duties, graduated according to the extent of the inheritance and the degree of relationship. Abolition of all indirect taxation, customs duties, and other economic measures, which sacrifice the interests of the community to the interests of a privileged minority.

These are sweeping changes, affecting all classes of society. For the protection of labor the German Social Democrats demand also to begin with:

I. An effectual national and international system of protective legislation on the following principles: (a) The fixing of a normal working day, which shall not exceed eight hours.

(b) Prohibition of the employment of children under fourteen years of age.

(c) Prohibition of night work, except in those branches of industry which, from their nature and for technical reasons, or for reasons of public welfare, require night work.

(d) An unbroken rest of at least thirty-six (36) hours for every workingman every week.

II. Supervision of all industrial establishments, together with the investigation and regulation of the conditions of labor in the town and country by an imperial labor department, district labor bureaus,

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and chambers of labor. A thorough system of industrial sanitary regulation.

III. Legal equality of agricultural laborers and domestic servants with industrial laborers. Repeal of the laws concerning masters and servants.

IV. Confirmation of the rights of association.

V. The taking over by the imperial government of the whole system of workmen's insurance, though giving the workmen a certain share in its administration."

An election manifesto was issued on May 1 of this year signed by all the Socialist members of the Reichstag, which was intended to form the fighting program of the present election. In this we find an attack on militarism and the existing tariff, a demand for the right of free speech and assemblage, and universal suffrage without regard to sex. But the conclusion reads as follows:

"Down with the present form of militarism, which is sucking the life of the people. Peace for the people.

"Down with the accursed taxation and commercial policy, which presses upon the lives of many men.

"Down with the taxation and tariff policy, which oppresses the poor and favors the rich.

"Down with internal reaction, governmental tyranny, police oppression, and judicial uncertainty.

"On with the battle for progress in every sphere, for knowledge, for freedom, for release from all the oppression which class domination and class legislation have laid upon the shoulders of the laboring masses of the people.

"*Our goal is the bringing in of the Socialist state and a social order founded upon social property in the means of labor with the duty of labor for all its members, and the creation of a political and social condition in which truth, justice, and equality, and the welfare of all will be the guiding motive of all acts.*"

This shows that in no way is there an abatement of the revolutionary position.

On the day of election, *The Vorwaerts* published a final appeal, which was directed equally against all other parties and emphasized the isolated revolutionary class character of the Social Democracy. Singer, who probably shares with Bebel the right to be considered the foremost Socialist in Germany, published an interview on the eve of election definitely repudiating all opportunism even of the character of Millerand in France. Finally, the attitude of the powers that be, especially the clerical and governmental parties, should be sufficient to satisfy anyone that the demands of the Social Democrats are by no means so simple things as the press of America would have us believe.

I have received, through an Austrian clipping bureau, all articles that have appeared in any of the non-Socialist papers of Western Europe on Socialism, and these show that something very like a panic was prevailing. Such headlines as "The Social Danger," "The Common Enemy" and "The Red Terror" were common. Some of these even went so far as to advocate a military *coup d'etat,* and abolition of constitutional government in order to preserve German institutions from the hostile attacks of the terrible Socialists.

The great strength of the German Socialist has always been in the industrial region, and the great bulwark of their opponents has been found in the clerical ranks, and especially the clerical farmer. The following, from a recent article in the *Munchener Neueste Nachrichten* expresses this position clearer than anything I could write: "The 'comrades' know full well that they cannot hurl the Kaiser and nobility from their thrones and erect the future State (*Zukunft Staat*) so long as there are German farmers. The King and the farmer, these are the two most hated by the Social Democrats." The recent election shows, however, that large inroads were made into the ranks of the farmers. The Church in Germany, as in most European countries, is not simply a religious, but is also a political, organization. In its attack on the Socialists it has gone so far as to organize rival trade unions, which the Socialists scornfully designate as "yellow" unions, which are supposed to have as their main function the fighting not of the employers but of the regular trade unions, which are practically all controlled by the Socialists.

Several events of the recent election are particularly worthy of note. One of those most satisfactory to the Socialists is the remarkable gains which were made in Essen, the city where the Krupp gun works are located. For years the Krupp

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employees had been considered impervious to Socialism. An extensive system of alleged benevolent measures, including profit-sharing, insurance, workingmen's cottages, etc., combined with the most severe victimization of any person suspected of Socialist leanings, had succeeded in keeping the Socialist vote down to a very low point. About a year ago *Vorwaerts* exposed the hypocritical character of these benevolent schemes and, at the same time, published a series of charges as to the private life of Herr Krupp, who had always posed as a highly moral character. Almost immediately after the publication of these charges Herr Krupp died, and the opponents of Socialism alleged that his death was due to these charges. The Emperor made his funeral a national affair and took occasion to denounce the Socialists most viciously and to start a crusade against them in the governmentally controlled press. Nevertheless the result of the election showed that the employes of the great gunmaker accepted the Socialist point of view and the vote rose from 4,400 to 22,704.

The growth of the Social Democratic party year after year is shown in the following table:

Year.	Popular vote.	Members.
1871	124,655	2
1874	351,952	9
1877	493,288	12
1878	437,158	9
1881	311,961	12
1884	549,990	24
1887	763,128	11
1890	1,427,298	35
1893	1,876,738	44
1898	2,113,073	56
1903	3,112,000	82

The number of Socialist representatives, however, has always been very much below that to which their vote would naturally entitle them. This is due to the fact that the apportionment for the Reichstag was made many years ago when the population of the rural districts was relatively much larger than at present. As the great industrial cities grew in population and also became Socialist, it was only necessary to retain the early apportionment in order to have the most effective gerrymander against that party.

So it happens that, while the Socialists are now by far the strongest party in Germany, their representation in the Reichstag is still considerably less than that of some other parties. At the previous election the Socialists were compelled to cast 37,626 votes for each man they elected while the Clericals or Center Party needed only 13,228. As a consequence we find the position of the new Reichstag so far as the elections have been decided to be made up as follows:

Socialists	82
Clericals	101
Conservatives and free conservatives	72
National Liberals	52
Radical Liberals, etc	36
Poles	17
Alsatians	9
Antisemites and Christian Socialists	8
Bavarian Farmers' Alliance	6
Guelphs	4
Farmers' Alliance	2
Nationalists	1
Danes	1

"SPIRIT OF THE SOUTHERN CONFEDERACY."—On May 2 was dedicated in Baltimore F. Wellington Ruckstuhl's great work, "Spirit of the Southern Confederacy." It is the gift of the Maryland Daughters of the Confederacy. It stands in the center of Mt. Royal Avenue, between McMechen and Mosher Streets, about 1,000 feet from the entrance to Druid Hill Park on a grassy mound two and a half feet high. Its height is about 14 feet. Its pedestal of Missouri red granite was designed by Charles R. Lamb of New York. Mr. Ruckstuhl's early training was in St. Louis, giving him a sympathetic insight into the spirit that animated the Confederacy. The monument could not, perhaps, be better described than in the sculptor's words, telling of how the idea came to him:

"One evening two years ago," he says, "I sat in the Metropolitan Opera House. 'Tannhäuser' was being played. I had been groping for days for a conception for a Confederate monument for Springfield, Mo., when suddenly I became oblivious to 'Tannhäuser' and I saw a typical Southern soldier, with worn shoes and his clothes torn by bullets, having thrown away all his military accoutrements, his coat and hat, and even rolled up his sleeves as if for a final desperate fight to the finish. He was looking sternly toward me with flashing eyes and quivering nostrils. Suddenly he placed his left hand over his heart as if to stifle the pain of a shot, while

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THE SPIRIT OF THE SOUTHERN CONFEDERACY.
BY F. WELLINGTON RUCKSTUHL.

his right arm, which held a shattered gun, became rigid with an involuntary grasp, as his body straightened up. His face changed from an expression of pain and anger to one of a calm feeling of triumph even in defeat, and then to a pathetic expression, as if saying, 'Forgive them, Father, they know not what they do.' He began to sink. All rancor left his face, just one touch of sadness for his country remained. He was about to fall into the mire when I saw a tall, powerful, splendid winged Victory swoop down from the sky and clasping him to her breast, while holding aloft a crown, she said, 'Hold; right or wrong, he fought a good fight. He followed the right as God let him see the right. Touch him no more, for he belongs to me.'"

The pedestal bears the following inscription:

Front.

GLORIA VICTIS
TO THE
SOLDIERS AND SAILORS
OF MARYLAND
IN THE SERVICE OF THE
CONFEDERATE STATES
OF AMERICA.
1861-1865.

Back.

GLORY
STANDS BESIDE
OUR GRIEF.
ERECTED BY
MARYLAND DAUGHTERS
OF THE
CONFEDERACY,
JANUARY, 1903.

On one side.

FATTI MASCHII
PAROLE FEMINE.

On opposite side.

DEO VINDICE.

The group as finally made was accepted for the Maryland Daughters of the Confederacy by a special committee consisting of Mrs. D. Giraud Wright, President; Mrs. John P. Poe and Mrs. Thomas B. Gresham, who were appointed from the general committee selected by the Daughters and made up of members of the Executive Board of the Society with Mrs. G. Smith Norris representing the County chapters. The membership of the general committee was as follows: Mrs. D. Giraud Wright, President Maryland Daughters of the Confederacy; Mrs. Clara Marshall, First Vice-President; Mrs. John P. Poe, Second Vice-President; Mrs. E. S. Beall, Treasurer; Mrs. J. Francis Denman, Registrar; Mrs. Hugh H. Lee, Recording Secretary; Mrs. Samuel C. Chew, Corresponding Secretary; Managers, Mrs. Thomas B. Gresham, Mrs. B. Jones Taylor, Mrs. S. J. Hough, Mrs. MacHenry Howard, and Mrs. J. M. Cary; representing County chapters, Mrs. G. Smith Norris.

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The Fall in Securities.

BY

EUGENE HECTOR,
Financial Editor "Chicago Tribune."

THE great fall in stock and bond prices experienced in the New York market in August, 1903, forms the closing phase of the most wonderful era of speculation the United States has ever experienced. The current low prices mark the swift downturn of inflated values which comes after five years of great industrial prosperity. The fall has been more swift than the rise, and for that reason is proving inexplicable to many who can see nothing unnatural in a great advance, but everything wrong in a corresponding decline.

The culmination of high prices, or, it might be said, after climax, came in the summer of 1902. The first real jar of widespread importance the market received was May 9, 1901, when there was an actual stock panic precipitated by the fight among Wall street interests for control of the Northern Pacific. But following this, powerful market interests made up of the speculative element which had grown rich in industrial promotions, carried on a bull campaign in the summer of 1902. In the latter part of September prices began to recede and have continued to decline, following weak rallies, since that date.

A compilation of the changes in price of 80 railroad stocks and 41 industrial stocks, taking the high quotations for 1902, and the recent low prices, shows a shrinkage of $2,154,969,000. Various stocks declined from 10¼ points, as in the case of Reading first preferred, to 116 points, as in the case of Chicago and Northwestern. The latter sold at 271 in 1902, and 155 in 1903, a drop of more than forty per cent. The shrinkage in value amounted to $90,016,000, or more than the par value of the stock outstanding, which is $77,600,000. A summary of the compilation referred to shows the following:

Description:	Par Value.	Shrinkage in One Year.
Railroad stocks (80 companies)	$3,490,100,000	$1,295,823,000
Industrials (41 companies)	2,521,309,300	859,146,000
Totals	$6,011,409,300	$2,154,969,000

The genesis of the five years' rise is to be found in the prosperity of the country which followed the first election of McKinley in 1896 and the establishment of sound money principles. Gold and currency which had been hoarded were brought forth and bank accounts which had been inactive, all, through the restoration of confidence, served to increase the money in circulation. A spirit of enterprise developed on every hand. There were buoyancy of sentiment, a resumption of manufacturing, and a large demand for products. As wealth grew rapidly, the tendency to speculate in securities kept pace.

But, while without confidence there could have been no such speculative movement as followed, neither would there have been such a one but for the unexpected development of combining industrial corporations and issuing large amounts of stocks for which no money consideration was paid. Among the earliest consolidations of note was the National Biscuit Company, organized by W. H. and J. H. Moore. Another still earlier was that of the Glucose Sugar Refining Company. One was a consolidation of the cracker industries of the country, and the other the glucose and starch plants. In the case of the latter a number of properties which had paid their owners but a small return, and in some instances none, were consolidated. Combined and operated by C. H.

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Matthiessen, who was head of the Chicago Sugar Refining Company, and had made large profits in the business, the unprofitable plants, through economy of operation, were made to pay. This suggested that other consolidations might be commercially profitable, and for nearly five years the process of combination continued.

The attractive side of the consolidations was the free stock which went to promoters and underwriters. In consolidating a number of companies engaged in the same industry, it became necessary to organize a new corporation to take over the different properties. The first function of this latter company was to furnish means with which to purchase the companies to be combined. In some instances owners of plants asked for cash. In other instances they were willing to accept part cash and part stock in the new company. Then with the organization of the purchasing corporation there would be provided usually two classes of stock, one preferred and the other common. The preferred stock would ordinarily be entitled to cumulative dividends of a fixed rate per annum. That is, if it was proposed to pay 7 per cent. annually on the preferred stock, this amount would have to be distributed before anything could be paid on the common stock. In the event of the 7 per cent. dividend not being earned in any one year, it would remain a charge against earnings until it had been paid and until that time nothing could be paid to common stockholders.

Ordinarily the common stock issue would be in excess of the preferred—about one and one-half times. Thus if the new corporation, for instance, had $12,000,000 of preferred stock, it would have $18,000,000 of common. This being decided upon as the proper capitalization, an underwriting syndicate would be formed. The new company not only needed cash with which to buy the properties proposed to be consolidated, but there would be also needed surplus cash for working capital, or, in other words, for enabling the company to buy raw materials and hold its finished products if necessary until they could be profitably marketed. In the illustration in point the promoters of the new company would offer for public subscription a certain amount of the stock at a fixed price. In the present instance the entire issue of $12,000,000 preferred stock might be offered at par, and there would be given with each share of preferred one share of common stock as a bonus to make subscriptions attractive. The underwriting syndicate would include the persons who subscribed for this preferred stock. After the entire amount offerred had been subscribed for, then the project of consolidating all the companies was said to be underwritten, that is, its consummation was insured by the subscribers agreeing to take the new company's stock at a certain price, and thereby furnish the money necessary to carry out the plan of buying up the several properties. It will be seen that as the common stock given as a bonus reached prices above $50 per share, and the preferred stock rose above the price paid for it, the privilege of becoming an underwriter in these various consolidations was eagerly sought after.

The underwritings furnished a wide distribution of profits. While not individually so great as to the immediate promoters, these profits were greater in the aggregate and distributed over a larger number of beneficiaries. Because it was one of the earliest consolidations and a western one, the Glucose Sugar Refining Company may be used as an illustration. The company was floated with $12,619,300 preferred stock and $24,027,300 common stock. The underwriting syndicate was composed of the people who were permitted to buy the $12,619,300 preferred stock at par, and receive as a bonus $18,000,000 common stock. For each share of preferred stock for which par was paid there was received a share and a half of common stock. The promoters received $5,981,701 common stock without any payment, so that the entire issue of $24,027,300 common stock cost nothing, and in December, 1898, five months after the company was floated, had a value of $15,858,018. This amount shows how the little group which organized the Glucose Sugar Refining Company profited. In December the preferred stock sold at 108 and the common stock at 66. These were not the highest prices, but are used in the following table:

Market value preferred issue, $12,619,300, at 108	$13,628,844

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Market value common issue, $24,027,300, at 66		15,858,018
Total market value		$29,486,862
From which deduct:		
Cost of preferred issued to underwriters at par	$12,619,300	
Cost of $18,045,599 common issued to underwriters	Nothing	
Cost of $5,981,701 common issued to promoters	Nothing	
Total cost, or money paid in		$12,619,300
Making promotion underwriting profits		$16,867,562

According to these figures, the underwriters made a profit of 133 per cent on their investment. The promoters received for nothing common stock amounting to $5,981,701. In the organization of the National Biscuit Company the underwriters had a market profit of $15,420,000. The promoters received $6,000,000 of common stock worth in December, 1898, $50 per share. The underwriters in the American Tin Plate Company had a profit of $11,200,000. The promoters received $10,000,000 in common stock. In the organization of three companies alone there were profits to underwriters of $32,576,430. The promoters received in addition profits in the way of common stocks of the par value of $22,000,000.

For weeks and months the process of consolidation was followed in industrial lines, until all the great industries of the country had practically been consolidated, ending with the United States Steel Corporation, with a capital stock of over $1,018,700,000. When there is taken into consideration the fact that over $3,000,000,000 of industrial stocks have been created and listed on the New York Exchange, there can be realized the great fortunes that were made in floating these propositions. In addition many more millions were made in railroad stocks. From these sources came the easy money on which stocks were inflated during a period of five years.

After the stocks of the new companies had been listed on the New York Stock Exchange, they became favorite speculative securities. The men and groups of men, who had suddenly become several time millionaires, had money easily earned with which to speculate in their own and other securities. As prosperity continued so did speculation and more promotions, until the public ability to buy further became practically exhausted. It then became a case of everybody having something to sell. In this condition there was nobody to buy. The market was full of people who wished to dispose of stocks and turn their paper profits into actual cash.

May, 1901, found the stock brokerage houses of New York and Chicago well filled with accounts carried on margin. Speculation had become so universal that people with small means did not hesitate to put up all their surplus in stock commission houses, buying every share that a broker would carry on the money furnished. While in the average transaction a commission house will buy 100 shares of stock on margin, asking therefor $1,000, or 10 points, some houses would buy on 5 points margin. In consequence the market was ripe for the disaster which came about May 9, 1901. A fall of five points caught one class of small speculators; a fall of ten caught more with no further resources. Declines in one stock caused declines in others, until within two hours there had been wiped out of existence many small fortunes. The public has been gradually getting out and being forced out, ever since.

But the permanent decline did not begin until last fall. Then the New York banks found their cash reserves were running below the legal requirements. At the same time Wall street houses had borrowed abroad amounts variously estimated, but probably reaching $150,000,000. Alarmed at the extravagant speculation which was carried on last summer, foreign lenders began asking the repayment of loans which fell due in the closing months of last year. In order to meet these payments it was necessary to sell securities. The loans which the New York banks had made on stocks were "called" with the result that the collateral had to be sold to pay the principal. General distrust grew among holders of securities.

In the great shrinkage in values the loss has been largely profits on paper. The holders of Chicago and Northwestern stock saw an advance of 116 points. They held their shares and were no poorer so far as the original investment went, after the decline, than they were before. But they missed the opportunity of selling at a profit of 116 points. Others who used their surplus to buy at the high prices, are not, as a general rule, presumed to have held on all

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the way down. Some may have done so, but not the majority. The losses have therefore been distributed.

In the last six months rich men have been heavy losers of money easily earned. The common stocks and also the preferred stocks, which they owned and held as a result of promotions and underwriting syndicates, have so depreciated that their owners are probably worth one-half of what they were, in a market way, last year. The small speculators have ceased to be a factor in prices. A slump of 20 points is sufficient to eliminate 10 per cent. of the speculative element. A decline of 40 points will get 50 per cent. more. It is the experience of stock houses in Chicago that they are carrying but 25 per cent. of the accounts they did one year ago.

The small investors have been losers in the shrinkage in value of the dividend paying stocks. The United States Steel Corporation, because it was promoted by J. P. Morgan & Co., was looked upon as a concern whose management could be trusted and whose stocks would continue paying dividends. United States Steel common at 40 returned 10 per cent. on the cost of the purchase, since it pays 4 per cent. in dividends. Holders attracted by the interest return of common stocks have seen the market value of their holdings decline, but they have not lost their investments.

The general business of the country remains unaffected for the reason that the banks have cared for their commercial customers, and manufacturing concerns have not been cramped for lack of working capital. The wealth of the country remains unimpaired and the consumptive demand continues. But some curtailment may be expected in the coming year. There will be fewer yachts bought, fewer country seats, and reduced personal expenditures among the rich whose wealth in the markets has been shrinking. In general business there may be expected some decline, owing to the uncertainties of the coming presidential campaign and the high rates for money.

In the following table practically all of the low prices are for August 6, the lowest of the present year. A few stocks were lower at some time in the two weeks preceding August 6, while a few prices are for dates a little earlier in the year. Because of the varying dates the column of low prices is headed current low, although most of the quotations were, as indicated, made August 6, 1903:

RAILROAD STOCKS.

Description	Stock Issue	High, 1902	Current, Low	Decrease	Shrinkage
Atchison	$102,000,000	96⅝	55⅛	41½	$42,330,000
do. preferred	114,200,000	106⅛	84⅞	21¼	24,267,000
Ann Arbor	3,200,000	46	28	18	576,000
do. preferred	4,000,000	77⅛	59	18⅛	720,000
Baltimore and Ohio	125,000,000	118½	77¼	41¼	51,200,000
do. preferred	60,000,000	99⅛	84¼	14⅞	9,000,000
Brooklyn Rapid Transit	45,000,000	78	40½	37½	16,875,000
Canadian Pacific	84,500,000	145¼	117⅛	28⅛	23,660,000
Canada Southern	15,000,000	97	58	39	5,850,000
Central Railroad of New Jersey	27,400,000	198	156½	41½	11,371,000
Chesapeake and Ohio	60,500,000	57½	27½	30	18,150,000
Chicago and Alton	19,500,000	45⅝	19	26⅝	5,167,000
do. preferred	19,500,000	79	61¼	17¾	3,510,000
Chicago Great Western	30,000,000	35⅛	13	12⅛	3,600,000
do. preferred A	11,300,000	90¼	74½	15¾	1,808,000
do. preferred B	9,500,000	51¾	26½	25¼	2,375,000
Chicago, Milwaukee and St. Paul	58,100,000	198¾	134¼	64½	37,474,000
do. preferred	47,300,000	200¾	170½	30¼	14,290,000
Chicago and Northwestern	77,600,000	271	155	116	90,016,000
do. preferred	22,400,000	274½	197	77½	17,360,000
Chicago Terminal Transfer	13,000,000	24⅞	8⅛	16¾	2,210,000
do. preferred	17,000,000	44	17¾	26¼	4,220,000
Cleve., Cin., Chi. and St. Louis	28,000,000	108⅜	66½	41⅞	11,760,000
Colorado and Southern	31,000,000	35¾	11	24¾	7,750,000
do. first preferred	8,500,000	79½	45	34½	2,932,000
do. second preferred	8,500,000	57¾	17	40¾	3,485,000
Delaware and Hudson	34,400,000	184½	153	31½	10,836,000
Delaware, Lackawanna and Western	26,200,000	297	242	55	14,410,000
Denver and Rio Grande	38,000,000	51¾	24	27¾	10,640,000
do. preferred	44,400,000	96¾	72	24¾	11,100,000
Duluth, South Shore and Atlantic	12,000,000	24	7	17	2,040,000
do. preferred	10,000,000	35¾	12⅝	23⅝	2,300,000
Erie	112,300,000	44⅝	23⅛	21½	24,144,000
do. first preferred	47,900,000	75¾	63	12¾	6,227,000
do. second preferred	16,000,000	63¾	45	18¾	3,040,000
Hocking Valley	11,000,000	106	68½	37½	4,125,000
do. preferred	15,000,000	98¾	80	18¾	2,775,000
Illinois Central	95,000,000	173½	126⅛	47⅜	45,125,000
Iowa Central	8,500,000	51¾	17	34¾	2,975,000
do. preferred	5,600,000	90⅝	31½	58⅞	3,304,000

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RAILROAD STOCKS—CONTINUED.

Description	Stock Issue	High, 1902	Current, Low	Decrease	Shrinkage
Kansas City Southern	30,000,000	39	19	20	6,000,000
do. preferred	21,000,000	62¾	35	27¾	5,880,000
Lake Erie and Western	11,800,000	71½	26	45½	5,369,000
do. preferred	11,800,000	138	94	44	5,192,000
Louisville and Nashville	60,000,000	159½	99	60½	36,300,000
Manhattan Railway	55,200,000	158	128⅝	29⅝	16,284,000
Metropolitan Street Railway	52,000,000	174	111	63	32,760,000
Michigan Central	18,700,000	192	112	80	14,960,000
Missouri Pacific	77,800,000	125½	88¼	37¼	28,786,000
Missouri, Kansas and Texas	56,100,000	69¾	16¼	53½	31,013,000
do. preferred	13,000,000	125½	36	89½	11,635,000
Minneapolis, St. Paul and S. S. M.	14,000,000	84	46	38	5,320,000
do. preferred	7,000,000	139	121	18	1,260,000
Nashville, Chattanooga and St. Louis	10,000,000	122	96	26	2,600,000
New York Central	132,200,000	168⅞	112⅝	56¼	74,032,000
New York, Ontario and Western	58,100,000	57⅝	19¾	37⅞	22,078,000
Norfolk and Western	64,500,000	80¾	58¾	22	14,190,000
do. preferred	23,000,000	98	86	12	2,760,000
Pennsylvania	204,300,000	170	118⅛	51⅞	106,236,000
Reading Company	70,000,000	78½	44⅝	33⅞	23,800,000
do. first preferred	28,000,000	90¼	80	10¼	2,800,000
do. second preferred	42,000,000	80⅞	65	15⅞	6,720,000
Rock Island Company	68,900,000	50⅛	19½	30⅝	21,014,000
do. preferred	53,000,000	85½	57½	28	14,840,000
St. Louis and San Francisco	27,400,000	85½	12	73½	20,139,000
do. first preferred	5,000,000	90	24½	65½	3,275,000
do. second preferred	16,000,000	80⅜	44	36⅜	5,840,000
Southern Pacific	197,800,000	81¼	39⅛	42⅛	83,076,000
Southern Railway	120,000,000	41⅜	17⅛	24¼	28,800,000
do. preferred	60,000,000	98½	79½	19	11,400,000
Texas and Pacific	38,700,000	54¾	20½	34¼	13,158,000
Union Pacific	108,700,000	113¼	68¼	45	48,915,000
do. preferred	99,500,000	95	84	11	10,945,000
Wabash	28,000,000	38⅝	17½	21⅛	5,880,000
do. preferred	24,000,000	54½	29¼	25¼	6,000,000
Wheeling and Lake Erie	20,000,000	30¼	13⅛	17⅛	3,400,000
do. first preferred	5,000,000	66	45¼	20¾	1,050,000
do. second preferred	12,000,000	42⅜	24½	17⅞	2,160,000
Wisconsin Central	16,100,000	31	15½	15½	2,495,000
do. preferred	11,200,000	57⅜	35½	21⅞	2,464,000
Total					$1,295,823,000

INDUSTRIALS.

Description	Stock Issue	High, 1902	Current, Low	Decrease	Shrinkage
Amalgamated Copper	$153,800,000	79	35¾	43¼	$66,134,000
American Can	41,200,000	16¼	3¾	12½	5,150,000
do. preferred	41,200,000	60	35¼	24¾	10,300,000
American Car and Foundry	30,000,000	37⅝	30	7⅝	2,250,000
do. preferred	30,000,000	93⅜	81¼	12⅛	3,600,000
American Cotton Oil	20,200,000	57¾	25¼	32½	6,565,000
do. preferred	10,200,000	99½	85	14½	1,479,000
American Grass Twine	15,000,000	62¼	7	55¼	8,250,000
American Malting	14,500,000	7½	2½	5	725,000
do. preferred	14,400,000	29	15¼	13¾	2,016,000
American Locomotive	24,100,000	36⅞	15⅝	21¼	5,061,000
do. preferred	25,000,000	100¼	79½	20¾	5,250,000
American Linseed, preferred	16,700,000	58	31	27	4,509,000
American Smelting and Refining	50,000,000	49⅝	39½	10⅛	5,000,000
do. preferred	50,000,000	100⅛	87	13⅛	6,500,000
American Tobacco, preferred	54,500,000	151½	136	15½	8,447,000
American Sugar	45,000,000	135⅞	110	25⅞	11,250,000
do. preferred	45,000,000	132	116	16	7,200,000
American Telephone and Telegraph	104,700,000	186	127	59	61,773,000
Colorado Fuel and Iron	24,000,000	110½	40	70½	16,920,000
Consolidated Gas	73,000,000	230¾	171¼	59½	43,435,000
Continental Tobacco, preferred	48,800,000	126½	94¾	31¾	15,616,000
Corn Products	45,000,000	38⅜	22¼	16⅛	7,200,000
do. preferred	27,300,000	90	76	14	3,822,000
International Paper	17,400,000	23⅝	10	13⅝	2,349,000
do. preferred	22,400,000	77¼	63	14¼	3,136,000
International Power	7,400,000	77¼	37	40¼	29,600,000
New York Air Brake	8,000,000	196	113	83	6,840,000
People's Gas	32,900,000	109½	89⅞	19⅝	6,415,000
Pullman Company	74,000,000	250	196	54	39,960,000
Pressed Steel Car	12,500,000	63½	39	24½	3,062,000
do. preferred	12,500,000	96½	80	16½	2,062,000
Republic Iron and Steel	27,100,000	24¾	9⅝	15⅛	4,065,000
do. preferred	20,300,000	83⅜	55	28⅜	5,785,000
Standard Oil	97,500,000	715	585	130	126,750,000
Tennessee Coal and Iron	22,500,000	74⅝	35⅛	39½	8,887,000
United States Rubber	23,600,000	19⅝	8¾	10⅞	2,596,000
do. preferred	23,500,000	64	34	30	7,050,000
United States Steel	508,495,200	46¾	20⅝	26¾	134,751,000
do. preferred	510,314,100	97¾	68	29¾	151,818,000
Western Union	97,300,000	97½	81½	16	15,568,000
Total					$ 859,146,000
Grand Total					2,154,969,000

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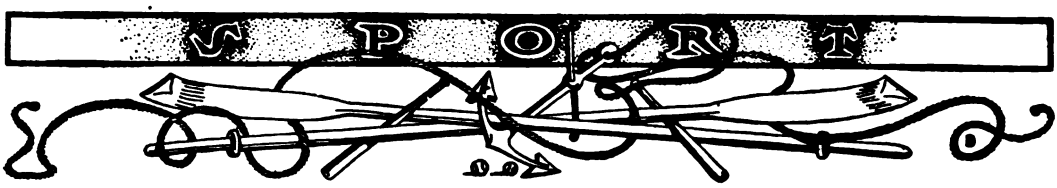

Review of the Month.

BY

GUSTAVE W. AXELSON,
Sporting Editor "The Chicago Record-Herald."

TENNIS.—Lawn tennis has shown a revival this year that has been nothing short of marvelous. A few years ago it was heralded far and wide that this popular game had shown a decline and would soon disappear. Numerous successful tournaments in various parts of the country this year have more than refuted this prophecy.

The Western championship tennis tournament at Kenwood gave ample evidence of the fact that the West has a number of players who are not far below the Eastern players in the game. In the East the tournaments at Longwood, Nahant, and other places brought out a number of new stars besides those that have been before the public a number of years.

The advent of the English team—H. L. and R. F. Doherty and H. S. Mahoney—has awakened popular interest in the game. That the Englishmen have greatly improved in their game over that of a year ago, when they met with some setbacks individually, has been apparent from the way they handled their opponents in a number of exhibition matches and their final victory for the championship trophy occasioned no great amount of surprise.

A surprise was the way Leo Ware and Holcomb Ward mowed down opposition in their battle at Longwood. R. G. and G. L. Wrenn went down to defeat unexpectedly before W. A. Larned and B. C. Wright, and the latter in turn succumbed to Ward and Ware. The latter won the right by their victory to meet Kriegh Collins and L. H. Waidner in the championship doubles at Newport.

KRIEGH COLLINS.
Western Tennis Champion.

Collins and Waidner have been playing a great game in the West. Collins won the tri-state championship at Cincinnati from R. D. Little of New York in five hard-fought sets by the score of 11-9, 4-6, 6-1, 3-6, 6-4. With his team-mate, Waidner, Collins was beaten in doubles at the same tourney by N. Emerson and E. Diehl by the score of 2-6, 7-5, 6-2, 6-3.

With the close of the Cincinnati tournament the stars moved on to Chicago to take part in the Western championships for men and women. Practically all the

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well-known figures in Western tennis took part in the tourney. After a week of weeding out Collins and Waidner were returned champions in men's doubles by defeating Emerson and Diehl, the Cincinnati players, by the score of 6-2, 8-6, 6-4.

A. C. Snow made a gallant struggle for the cup in singles and captured the tourney, defeating L. H. Waidner in the finals by the score of 6-1, 6-2, 4-6, 6-1. However, Snow was not equal to the brilliant playing of Collins for the championship, and Collins retained his title of Western champion by the score of 6-0, 7-5, 6-4.

Miss Myrtle McAteer of Pittsburg successfully defended her title to the women's championship by defeating Miss Winona Closterman of Cincinnati, who had previously won the tri-state championship at Cincinnati from Miss Carrie Neely of Chicago. Miss McAteer won in straight sets, 8-6, 6-1. Miss McAteer has now won four Western championships.

In the women's doubles Miss Carrie B. Neely and Miss Closterman defeated Miss Edythe Parker and Miss Louise Pound 6-1, 6-4.

A. C. SNOW.

FOOTBALL.—Frost and football have been synonymous terms in the North ever since the great collegiate sport first took root among the New England hills, but our Western schools, especially of late, have had small regard for the ancient pumpkin philosophy. There has been a tendency in our schools to collect at least the green material and less promising candidates for the football elevens early in the summer, sometimes two months before the real season opens. While the mercury has been bobbing up and down among the 90s perspiring candidates for fame and broken bones have spent hours trying to connect with the slippery pigskin.

L. H. WAIDNER.

This early practice has become a recognized evil among the large universities, and although promises have been made by those in authority that it would be abandoned, it is still with us. Rules have been passed by those in power among the Western universities looking to the curtailment of the practice season, but they have little or no effect. Under the cloak of preliminary practice weeks are now consumed in booting the pigskin around which could well be devoted to other pursuits.

That an effective rule is necessary is apparent. That it would benefit the game as a whole goes without saying. That practice before the middle of September should be tabooed absolutely by the university authorities is agreed, too, by some of the best critics, but none has offered any solu-

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tion of the problem. The general anxiety to be in the field early with the best team makes football coaches go to the extreme in the matter of preliminary practice.

While rules were discussed by those in charge of intercollegiate regulations this summer the conduct of the sport as a whole was not touched upon. Of course it is absurd to think that any set of men, outsiders in fact, could lay down regulations for the guidance of training and discipline; still a suggestion from these men of experience might go a long way in making the game more sane in its preparatory stage.

MYRTLE M'ATEER.
Four times Western Tennis champion.

Although the rules have not yet been generally circulated, the changes made by the Eastern committee will cut no particular figure in the technical conduct of the sport. It is likely that just as many bones as formerly will be broken, and it will probably be equally true that ninety-nine per cent. of these accidents will be confined to boys of tender years and small experience in the strenuous life on the gridiron. To the well-trained college athlete it will still serve as an incentive to better things with a minimum of risk.

It is unlikely that the average spectator will know the difference between last year's rules and this should they be seen in the West, but he will probably be informed through the newspapers that some changes have actually been made through the differences of opinion between the Eastern and Western authorities. The Eastern coaches and critics made the changes in good faith, thinking that the game might be improved. What the changes are matters little to the man who goes to cheer his alma mater to victory. It is sufficient to state that the East and the West have locked horns over the rules. The West is apparently willing to play under the rules in force last year. Among those who oppose the Eastern rules to some extent are Prof. A. A. Stagg of the University of Chicago and Coach F. H. Yost of the University of Michigan. Neither can see any necessity for the changes and some complications are likely as a consequence. Should the West refuse to accept the rules, the game between the Carlisle Indians and Northwestern University and between the University of Chicago and West Point, for instance, would cause all manner of confusion. In the end, however, it is quite likely that the Eastern rules will be adopted.

TURF.—Brilliant performances on the turf during June were followed by some sparkling contests in July. Chief of these was the victory of Africander in the rich Realization stakes at Sheepshead Bay. Africander, undoubtedly one of the greatest three-year-olds in the country, ran the mile and five-eighths in 2:45 1-5, easily beating Major Dangerfield's record of 2:47 3-5 for the distance. Africander was only a head in front of Golden Maxim at the end, and two lengths back of the latter was Savable, favorite for the American Derby and the pride of the West.

Equally good was the contest of Water Boy, when he ran a mile and a quarter at Brighton Beach in 2:03 1-5, setting a new world record for the distance.

On the strength of the performance of Water Boy in this race he was matched to meet McChesney for a purse of $10,000. The day before the race was scheduled, McChesney was reported to have gone lame, and probably the two greatest horses in the country failed to measure strides with each other.

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IN THE HARNESS-HORSE world the most striking performance during the month was that of Lou Dillon at Cleveland, July 31. Mr. C. K. G. Billings' mare, driven by Millard Sanders, trotted a mile against time in 2:02¾, beating her previous record by three-quarters of a second and coming within half a second of the world's mark held by Cresceus.

At Detroit John Taylor, an unknown horse, won the great Merchant and Manufacturer's stake of $10,000. It was a grueling contest and critics were not unanimous after the contest that the best horse won.

CRICKET.—Although America has been slow in adopting the national game of England, those who have transplanted the sport have had some encouragement of late years. The recent tournament of the Northwestern Cricket Association in Chicago gave some evidence of the interest taken in this kind of sport, also the enthusiasm of the devotees of the pastime. There were teams from Manitoba, St. Louis, Pittsburg, and St. Paul. The tourney ended in a triple tie between Manitoba, Chicago, and Pittsburg.

GOLF.—Whether or not golf will supplant baseball as the national game, as it has been prophesied by the knight of the links, remains to be seen; but it is certain that golfers have been kept busy the last few weeks. The most important tournament during July was the open at Milwaukee, at which the cream of Eastern and Western talent took part. The tourney was won by Alexander Smith of the Nassau Country Club with 318 strokes. Tied for second were Lawrence Auchterlonie of Glen View and David Brown of Wallaston Club. Both quit with 320 strokes. The finals of the last half of the match were played in a terrific rainstorm, but despite this the golf put up was nothing short of phenomenal.

On July 25, Chandler Egan defeated his cousin, Walter Egan, for the Exmoor cup by 4 up and 3 to play.

Next in importance to the open tournament at Milwaukee was the play for the Ravinoaks cup at Onwentsia golf club. R. F. Mundy of the Riverside club met W. E. Egan in the finals and defeated him by 2 up.

When it came to the Western amateur championship at Cleveland, Chandler and Walter Egan were pitted against each other in the finals. Walter won in a sensational 37-hole match.

BASEBALL.—The "dogs of war" in baseball were let loose about the middle of July, but did little damage. The war between the National and the American leagues threatened again to disorganize the game; but after the American League had won two suits over the services of George Davis and Norman Elberfeld in the New York courts, excitement subsided and peace reigns.

On August 15 the baseball standings and results were as follows:

NATIONAL LEAGUE.

Club	Won	Lost	Per Ct.
Pittsburg	64	33	.660
New York	60	37	.620
Chicago	61	41	.598
Cincinnati	51	45	.531
Brooklyn	45	50	.474
Boston	39	53	.424
St. Louis	35	66	.347
Philadelphia	31	61	.337

AMERICAN LEAGUE.

Club	Won	Lost	Per Ct.
Boston	62	35	.640
Philadelphia	55	42	.567
Cleveland	53	45	.541
New York	47	44	.516
Detroit	47	46	.505
St. Louis	43	50	.462
Chicago	43	53	.448
Washington	30	65	.316

AMERICAN ASSOCIATION.

Club	Won	Lost	Per Ct.
St. Paul	67	34	.663
Milwaukee	60	39	.606
Louisville	57	43	.570
Indianapolis	53	47	.530
Kansas City	45	49	.479
Minneapolis	40	61	.396
Columbus	39	62	.386
Toledo	37	63	.370

WESTERN LEAGUE.

Club	Won	Lost	Per Ct.
Milwaukee	59	33	.641
Colorado Springs	59	35	.628
Kansas City	49	42	.538
St. Joseph	46	45	.505
Peoria	42	52	.447
Denver	43	54	.443
Des Moines	39	55	.415
Omaha	36	57	.387

THREE EYE LEAGUE.

Club	Won	Lost	Per Ct.
Bloomington	60	35	.632
Decatur	53	38	.582
Rockford	50	44	.532
Davenport	45	44	.506
Rock Island	45	44	.506
Cedar Rapids	41	49	.456
Dubuque	40	54	.426
Springfield	34	60	.362

CENTRAL LEAGUE.

Club	Won	Lost	Per Ct.
South Bend	68	37	.648
Fort Wayne	66	37	.641
Marion	57	45	.559
Evansville	51	48	.515
Dayton	43	58	.426
Wheeling	42	58	.420
Terre Haute	42	60	.412
Grand Rapids	39	65	.375

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Turbo-Generators.

BY

HENRY H. NORRIS, M. E.

Assistant Professor of Electrical Engineering, Cornell University.

THE amount of energy stored in a pound of coal is very great, but strangely enough, even in this age of mechanical economy, no plan has been devised which will successfully transform, commercially, more than about ten per cent of this energy into the mechanical form. This loss of about ninety per cent is due to the methods by which the transformation is accomplished. The usual process is to burn the fuel in the air, thus giving up practically all its energy in the form of heat. This heat is then used to produce steam, which, with the accession of heat, tends to expand, and, when confined, gives rise to mechanical pressure. The purpose of this article is to describe one of the newer forms of engine from which an increased economy of energy transformation is being realized.

In the orthodox steam engine the power is produced by the direct pressure of the steam upon a piston, using the expansive force of steam to maintain this pressure after the supply from the boiler has been cut off by the controlling valve. In one form or another, without very radical change, this has been the usual practice for a century. In contrast with this method it is interesting to note that in utilizing the energy of waterfalls by means of some kind of hydraulic engine, the reciprocating piston—moving back and forth—has been used only in special cases, the water turbine taking its place. In this type of machine the water by its velocity produces impact on a set of revolving blades and a corresponding reaction on a set of fixed blades, with the result that the revolving blades are driven around with great power, and there results a very efficient device for the transformation of the stored energy of the water into mechanical energy. In some cases the reaction of the water on the fixed part is not utilized, and the source of power then becomes the impact alone, giving the name "impulse" wheel to this type.

At the present time there is a strong tendency in steam engineering practice to adapt the impulse and reaction principles to the production of mechanical power from steam, and the efforts in this direction are already meeting with a fair degree of success. There are under construction at the present time engines of this type, which will generate as much as 7,500 horse power each, while engines of smaller sizes are being built by several companies in large numbers. The advantages to be gained by such a radical change in type of engine may be summarized thus:

1. The absence of reciprocating parts results in a uniform rotative effort, doing away with the necessity for the ponderous flywheel which must be used with reciprocating engines.

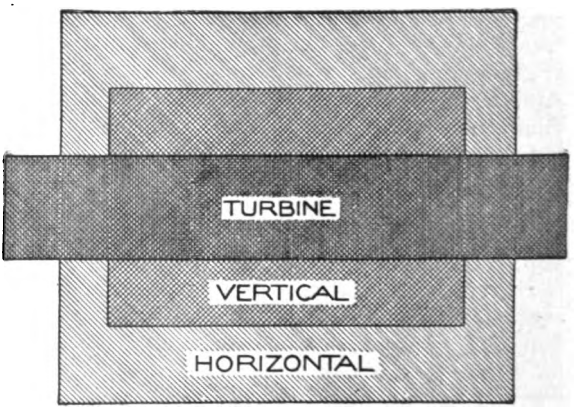

FIG. 1. DIAGRAM SHOWING RELATIVE FLOOR SPACE OCCUPIED BY VERTICAL AND HORIZONTAL RECIPROCATING ENGINES AND BY HORIZONTAL TURBINES.

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2. The high rotative speed that is used enables the machine to be built very compactly, so that there is little floor space occupied. (See Fig. 1.)

3. The great energy stored in the rotating part facilitates governing of the speed, for the inertia of the mass tends to keep it rotating uniformly. Thus, while the governors used on this type of engine are of the throttling type and not as sensitive as the governors used on reciprocating engines, the actual governing is very satisfactory for the reason mentioned.

4. The absence of reciprocating parts has also the effect of preventing vibrations; hence, the engine need not be provided with expensive foundations, for all that is necessary is a secure support.

This list of superior qualities would seem to indicate that the steam turbine is a machine which has radical advantages in operation over its older rival. This is true in many ways, but certain difficulties attend the use of the very high speeds, which attain values between 10,000 and 30,000 revolutions per minute, in the impulse type, and from 1,200 to 5,000 in the combined impulse and reaction type. At such speeds as this it becomes difficult to connect the engine with the machine which is to be driven. Belts cannot be used at such velocities as are necessary, and the only successful solutions of this problem are found either in confining the application of the turbines to such machinery as can be operated at very high rotative speeds, or in employing very finely cut gear-wheels for reducing the speed. The electric generator, particularly of the alternating-current type, is almost the only class of machinery that can be operated successfully at these high velocities, and it is fortunate for the future of the steam turbine that there is a great demand for electric generators, owing to the fact that electric power is now being used for so many purposes and on so large a scale. These generators can be directly connected to turbines of moderate speed, while in the use of high-speed turbines the spirally-cut gears are very successful for reducing the speed in machines of ordinary size.

The idea of utilizing the repulsive force of jets of steam is a very old one, although no practical application of the plan was made until long after the invention of the reciprocating engine. The original

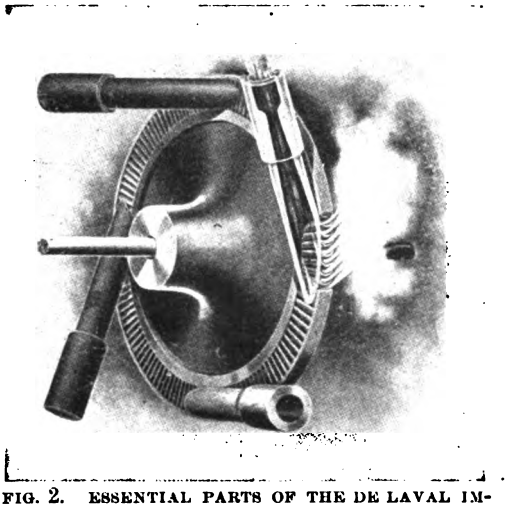

FIG. 2. ESSENTIAL PARTS OF THE DE LAVAL IMPULSE TURBINE.

suggestion was to employ a number of rotating arms, from the extremities of which were to issue the jets of steam pointed against the direction of rotation. This type of engine could be but a toy, as the unstable air is a poor substance to receive the impact of the steam jets. However, recent experiments have shown this type of engine to be fairly efficient, if suitable surfaces are provided upon which the jets of steam can act. Some of the modern steam turbines employ this principle in a modified form and combined with the impact action, while one successful form uses the impact alone.

The general construction of the De Laval steam turbine, which uses the impact of the steam only, is shown in Fig. 2. The machine consists essentially of two parts, a steel wheel provided, on its periphery, with small buckets, which are held rigidly in position by a steel band on the circumference of the wheel, and a system of nozzles located on one side of the wheel and inclined at an angle thereto; so that the jets of steam may strike the buckets in such a manner as to drive them forcibly around, the steam issuing from the opposite side of the wheel from that at which it entered.

In this machine it is the energy of the steam due to its velocity which produces the impact, so that it is economical to allow the steam to expand until it reaches the pressure of the exhaust before it strikes the revolving blades. The expansion is accomplished by increasing the

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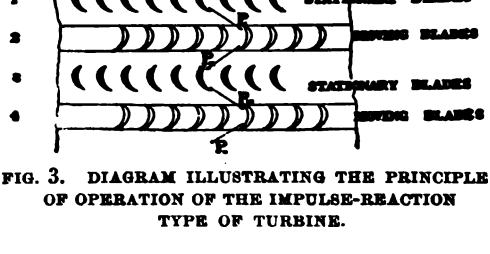

FIG. 3. DIAGRAM ILLUSTRATING THE PRINCIPLES OF OPERATION OF THE IMPULSE-REACTION TYPE OF TURBINE.

areas of the openings beyond the orifices in the nozzles, which are of such areas as to control properly the flow of the steam. The amount of power that the wheel is to develop economically may be changed by varying the number of nozzles in action, thus supplementing the work of the governor. For the efficient working of the impulse wheel it is necessary to allow the rotating part to revolve at a very high speed in order that the steam, which issues from the nozzles at a velocity of several thousand feet per second, may lose practically all this while passing through the buckets. The rotative speed is so great that it would be impossible to balance the wheel exactly, and great friction on the bearings would result were the shaft of the stiff form employed in most machinery.

Instead of this, the shaft is made flexible, in order that the rotating part may revolve about its own center of gravity, rather than about the center of the shaft. By this plan the high speeds become possible, but the power of the turbine is limited to the value at which the shaft can combine the required qualities of flexibility and strength. This limit at the present time seems to dictate about 300 horsepower maximum practicable power for one wheel.

In order to reduce the speed of the turbine to that of the machinery to which the power is to be applied, very finely cut gears are employed. The teeth of these gears are cut spirally and two gears are used on the driving and two on the driven shaft, with right and left hand spirals in each pair. In this way the tendency of the gears to move along the shaft, known as "end thrust," is avoided. These gears are cut with a high degree of perfection and they constitute a very important part of the engine. The gear case, in which the gears run in oil, occupies much more room than the turbine proper. This type of engine has been brought to a very satisfactory status, and the steam consumption is remarkably low. Recent tests on a 300 horsepower machine show a steam consumption of less than fourteen pounds per developed horse power, which rate compares very favorably with the best reciprocating engines, being rarely surpassed by them in machines of this size.

The combined impulse and reaction type of steam turbine appears to be more readily adaptable to larger sizes of units than the one just described. It operates on the principle well illustrated in Fig. 3, where sets of stationary blades and of movable blades are shown. The former are mounted on the inside surface of a cylinder, while the latter are carried on a spindle, which allows them to move between the rows of fixed blades. Steam is admitted at the surface marked P, where it is deflected to the proper angle for striking the row of blades P, upon which it produces a pressure. This row of moving blades deflects the current of steam against a second

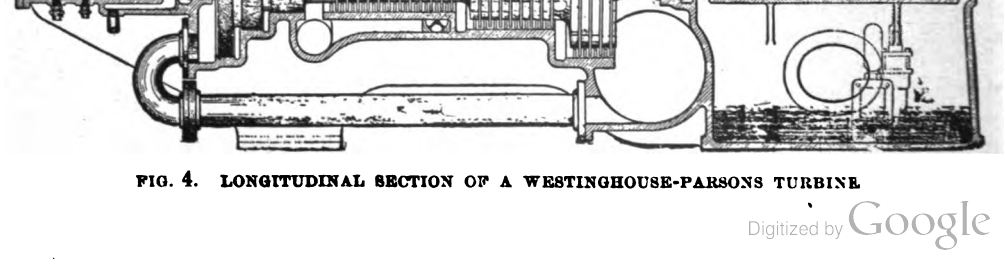

FIG. 4. LONGITUDINAL SECTION OF A WESTINGHOUSE-PARSONS TURBINE

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row of the fixed blades, and in so doing produces a reacting force on itself. Thus the moving blades receive energy from the steam both by impulse and reaction. This process is continued through many sets of the blades until practically all the energy which can be obtained from the steam has been converted into the mechanical form. By taking but a part of the energy from the steam in each set of blades the velocity at which the blades must operate is greatly reduced, so that no flexible shaft is needed, and the speed is brought down to a point that is practicable for electric generators, which are therefore coupled directly to the engine, and intermediate gearing is avoided. The speeds are still very great even in large engines, that for a 1,500 horsepower engine, for example, being 1,500 revolutions per minute, while smaller sizes, such as 600 horsepower, run at 3,600 revolutions per minute.

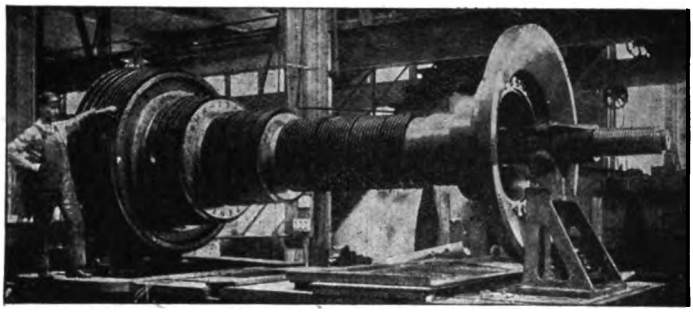

FIG. 5. ROTATING PART OF A 2,000 H. P. STEAM TURBINE. (SEE FIG. 4 FOR THE RELATION OF THIS TO OTHER PARTS OF THE MACHINE.)

Fig. 4 is a longitudinal section of the Westinghouse-Parsons steam turbine, which is of the type just described. It is about as different in appearance from the orthodox steam engine as one could possibly be. Steam enters at the point A, to the left of which there are balancing pistons for preventing the turbine, as a whole, from being forced in the direction of the steam current. The rows of fixed and stationary blades are shown, and these must necessarily have increased velocity as the steam expands in volume until, at the point B, where the steam is drawn from the engine into the condenser, the diameter of the spindle which carries the blades is very great. At the right are shown the governor and the pump for circulating oil through the system of bearings, a matter of the greatest importance in machinery of this class.

Fig. 5 is from a photograph of the rotating part of a large turbine, and it shows clearly the numerous radial blades closely arranged about the spindle. At the right are the balancing pistons.

The plan and elevation of a large and complete turbo-generator are given in Fig. 6.

This engine of the "compound" type; that is, there are two cylinders, in each of which about one-half of the power is generated. The steam enters one of the cyl-

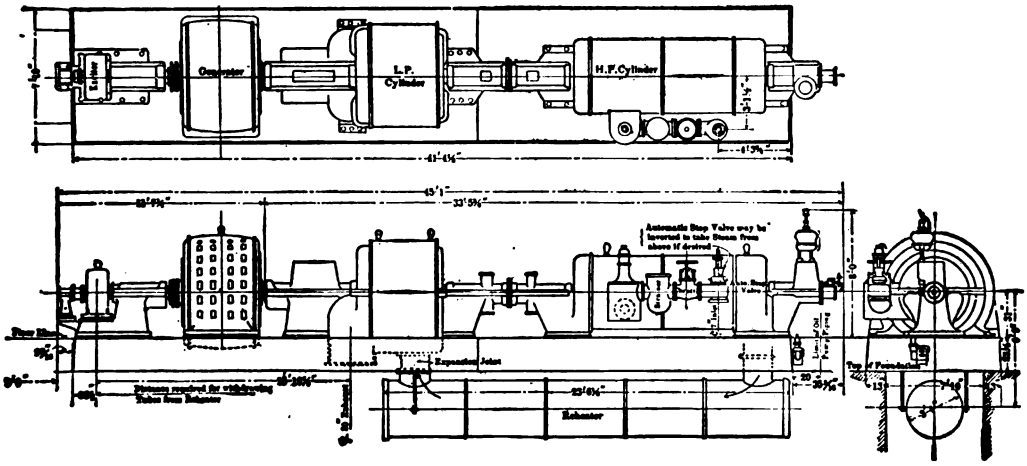

FIG. 6. PLAN AND ELEVATION OF A LARGE TURBO-ALTERNATOR AND EXCITER.

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inders at a pressure of about 140 pounds per square inch above atmospheric pressure. It expands until its pressure has fallen approximately to that of the atmosphere, the exact amount depending upon the load which is being carried at the time by the engine. At this pressure the steam enters the second, or "low pressure" cylinder, emerging from this into the condenser, with all of the available energy exhausted. The gain resulting from dividing the expansion into two stages results from the reheating which the

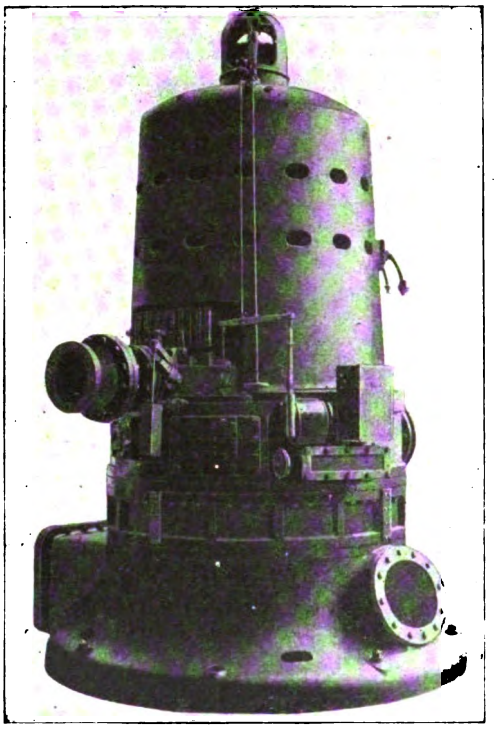

FIG. 7. A 2,000-KW., CURTIS TURBINE.
By permission of the "Electrical World and Engineer."

steam receives between the two cylinders. The reheater is simply an arrangement of tubes in which the low pressure steam receives heat from high pressure steam obtained directly from the boiler. The steam, as it expands, has a tendency to condense, and this condensation would interfere with the free passage of the steam current through the blades. The illustration shows the path of the steam from throttle valve to exhaust. It enters through the automatic stop valve, the function of which is to cut off the steam in case the speed of the engine should exceed a certain safe limit. This valve is operated by a small auxiliary governor. Next is the main throttle valve, at which the flow of steam is manually controlled, and from which the steam passes into the strainer, where it is freed from foreign substances, which would work havoc among the delicate blades of the turbine.

Beyond the strainer is the main governor valve of the poppet type, the position of the poppet being determined by the "fly-ball" governor with which it is connected by a system of practically frictionless levers. From the governor valve the steam enters the high pressure cylinder, then the receiver, and finally flows into the low pressure cylinder and the exhaust.

The illustration conveys an idea of the electric generator to which the engine is directly coupled. Its small size is especially noticeable, this being a natural result of the high speed employed. At the extreme left of the cut is the direct current exciter, a small generator which supplies the field magnet circuit of the alternator with current.

The most recent comer into the turbine field is the Curtis engine now being put upon the market by the General Electric Company. This machine possesses a vertical rotating member, and the greatest possible compactness is thus secured. Externally it resembles the vertical water turbine, but internally the construction is similar to both the machines already described. As in the DeLaval turbine, the impact of the steam emerging from nozzles at high velocity produces the rotative effort. This velocity is not, however, absorbed in one set of buckets, but there are several wheels of large diameter, each of which absorbs part of the velocity. The illustrations convey a clear idea of the general structural features of this interesting machine, which is being built in large sizes.

It is early to predict that the steam turbine is to displace the reciprocating engine to a serious extent; and yet, at the present time, it is enjoying a most vigorous development under the stimulus of increasing popular favor. It is to the electric generator that it owes its most important opportunity for supplying its share of the world's power. The demand

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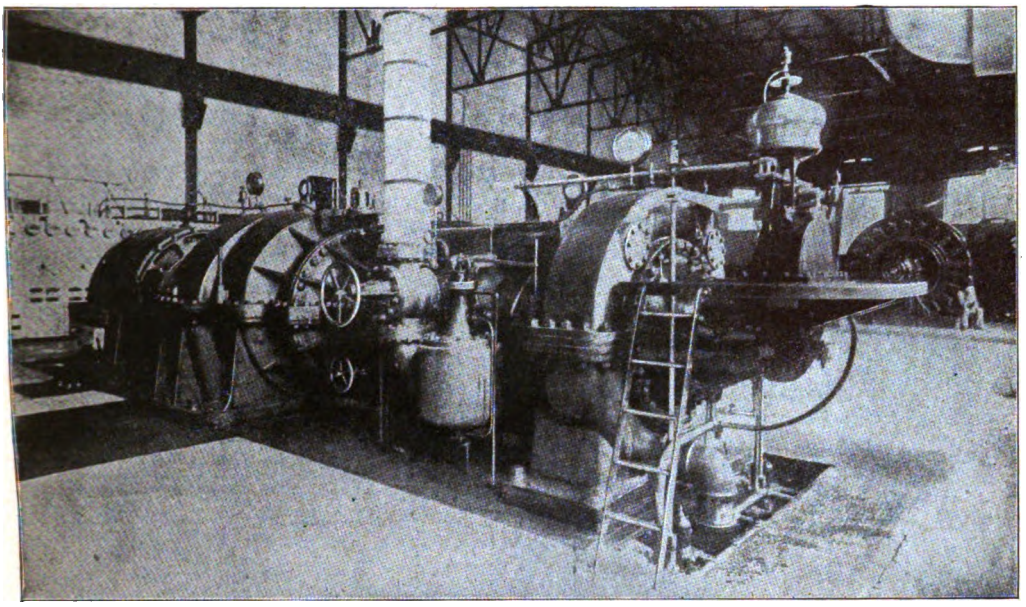

FIG. 8. TURBO-ALTERNATOR IN THE HARTFORD (CONN.) ELECTRIC LIGHT CO.'S POWER HOUSE. The rotating part of this engine is shown in Fig. 5.

for these engines is so large that it will take the builders years to fill even the present orders.

The neat but unusual appearance of a modern power station equipped with a turbo-generator is here shown in Fig. 7.

TYPO-MATRIX MACHINES FOR DIRECT PRINTING are a recent invention which bids fair to revolutionize the printing industry. In any event, the simplicity of construction and operation is phenomenal. The art of printing has developed on two lines, that of relief printing and that of surface printing. Until very recent times relief printing has been almost universal, whereas surface printing has been confined largely to lithographic and ornamental products. The invention of metallic plates for surface printing, and the construction of presses to operate them, however, have brought the results of these two forms of printing so near together in the appearance of the printed page that the final solution of the great problem of machine composition for straight matter is to be brought about by the development of surface printing.

Surface printing is done by transferring matter to lithographic stone, zinc, or aluminum plates, which are then used in any suitable presses for the production of printed pages. To develop surface printing requires a simple, rapid machine, producing a product equal to a proof of hand-set type, composed upon transfer paper ready for transfer to proper plates. This requires that the paper upon which the impressions are made be moved in a feeding direction at each impression, the exact width of the character impressed, varying with the diverse width of type, and also that the impressions be as solid, clear-cut, and sharp as the product of the best type.

The Sears direct printer, the subject of this sketch, is a machine possessing these necessary qualifications. This machine is not much larger than a typewriter, which it closely resembles. It has thirty-four keys with ninety characters, which make their letter-press impressions on transfer paper. All accented letters and signs of every description used in printing can be operated on this machine. Ink is distributed over the letters and characters by means of rollers and a change can be made from printer's ink to analine ink in less than one minute. The machine has a variable feed, moving the paper the exact width of the character impressed, whether of upper, middle, or lower case; it has mechanism for justification of matter—errors in which are detected at once; it

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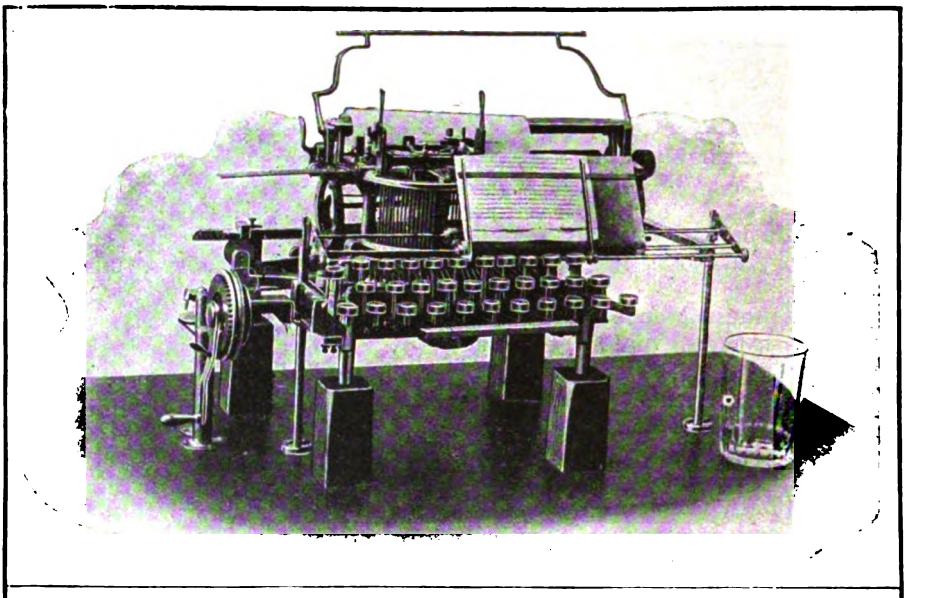
makes lines of any required length, heavy or light, and can be interchanged instantly with italics or bold-face type of like body, each font containing ninety characters, the total capacity for each machine being two hundred and seventy characters.

The operation of the machine is as follows: Transfer paper is put in the paper-carriage, and prepared copy placed in the justifier, gauged to the length of line required. Without the intervention of any extraneous power the operator begins. So simple is the construction of the machine that a skillful operator of any other keyboard machine can learn to operate the Sears direct printer in a few days' time. His gauge tells him how to justify by throwing in extra spaces, and he repeats this line by line until the article is completed. Then the article is proofread as usual by printers, who mark the corrections on the margin of the paper and return the article to the machine-operator. He sets up the corrections on another paper. These corrections are cut out and each one laid on top of the error, which is thus obliterated. The headlines are set up as usual in "job type," proof is taken from them on transfer paper and placed at the head of the article.

Now the pages are made up on paper in such forms as are desired for printing. This process is as follows: A sheet of paper is laid out the size of the form to be printed, the article placed thereon, together with all other matter for that sheet (advertisements, cuts, etc.) and "punched fast" with a steel point. Then the form is ready for transfer. On a lithographic plate one-thirty-second of an inch thick, of stone, zinc, or aluminum, it is laid face downward and the transfer is made by means of pressure. The paper is then removed from the plate, the printed matter remaining thereon and the transfer treated by the usual chemical process. Then the form is ready for the press and printing. From one transfer, from fifty thousand to one hundred thousand copies can be printed, and by means of other transfers, the number of which can be increased indefinitely, any edition is possible.



THE SEARS DIRECT PRINTER.

It is noticeable that this machine does away with the need of typesetting, electrotyping, stereotyping, and numerous other devices that are now required in a printing office to prepare the forms for press. It is adapted to book and newspaper work where lines are justified, and especially to commercial reports, directories, rule and figure work, and all advertising work where only capitals are used.

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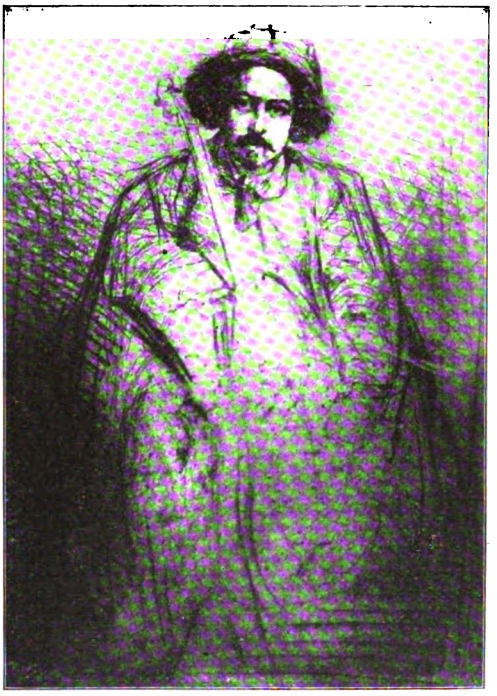
Whistler: Sane and Unsane.

BY

JAMES WILLIAM PATTISON,
Class Lecturer on the Collections of the Art Institute of Chicago.

WHISTLER was a crank. Some cranks grind good grist; some merely grind the face of the public. Whistler did both; mostly the former. But he did love to prod the public to wrath. As genius is unaccountable, it is useless to seek for reason in many phases of Whistler's character. Why he should act as if he were a humbug, while he knew the limitless measure of his genius, is beyond the analysis of most of us common mortals. Having extraordinary abilities, and perfectly aware of them, he acted as if he knew that he had none. With measureless courage and limitless impudence, he probably helped himself to "break through" by means of the latter. Following the profession of art for fifty years (he died at 69) and at the commencement very poor, he sustained himself by means of his etchings, which ever found favor with collectors. The reason for this is to be discovered partly in the superior cultivation of print collectors. They were exceptional men, since the general public did not care for etchings. Whistler never admitted that etching was one kind of art, drawing another kind, and painting still another. He painted just as he etched, with the same brevity of expression. If a few sparse lines answered as expression on copper, then the same brevity was quite sufficient in oil painting.



THE FIDDLER. ETCHING BY WHISTLER.

But the public, always enamored of detail and pretty finish, had the idea that paintings were sacred things, to be made in a certain way, and that it was a sacrilege to slight them. Even the taste of many print collectors was warped by the constant contemplation of highly finished engravings, so that the critics whined over the slight means used in his presentations of the scenes they knew, such as views of Venice and the Thames. However, the habits of many master etchers, in the way of brief statement, forced them to admit that Whistler was possible, though they would have liked him better with more finish. But no such liberalism could be found when it came to a question of painting in oils. The artist's brevity of statement was shocking, insulting, insufferable.

Then he horrified them by covering a canvas with paint without giving them lively colors. What is good color? No one knows, nor can know. To the public, colors were colors. To Whistler, color was refined tone. The people had no ideas about the something subtle which we have learned to know by the name of "tone." There is fine tone in the pictures of Ve-

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"PORTRAIT OF MY MOTHER."—WHISTLER.

lasquez (and very rarely do we find positive colors there), but the great Spaniard was but little thought of by the British public at the time when Whistler fought his battle. Even in France, the fashions in art did not admit of "tone" in the sense in which Whistler taught us to appreciate it, though the Barbizon school was also solving this problem in another way. So accustomed have we grown to the use of Whistler tones in these days, that it is difficult for us to comprehend the benighted state of the art-lovers in this regard at the time when our hero set up his revolutionary standard. We cannot conceive, unless very studious, of the wide-reaching effect of his art on the times we live in.

Also, the good public was put in bad humor by the unfinished condition of his painting, as has been said. What possible right had the imposter to claim that these "daubs" were really serious pictures? He might as well ask them to go to the restaurant and have joy in eating caviar, as to enjoy those ugly, half-made "sketches." People flock to the picture galleries to be amused and to show their fine clothes, not to think, or study subtleties. It was on this point that the notorious libel suit against Ruskin turned. "Do you consider detail and composition essential to a work of art?" asked Ruskin's lawyer of Burne-Jones, a witness for the defense. There can be no doubt as to the answer to this question from that witness. But detail found no place in Whistler's art, and composition is something which the two artists were little likely to agree about. And still the revolutionist did have wonderfully refined composition in his works. The "Portrait of My Mother" is marvelously composed; but to Burne-Jones such a combination of lines and masses had no meaning. It is an almost colorless canvas at best; that is, it has absolutely no *colors* as we commonly know them. The photograph finished by that method we vulgarly call "platinum print," the reproduction of this picture which we know so well, is nearly as much colored as the original painting. But the picture is by no means merely a black and white. Everywhere there is the most refined play of harmonious variations in the tone, so subtle that he must be a courageous colorist who would attempt to copy it. The face is scarcely flesh-toned, and still looks perfectly alive and healthy—the tint of an old person. Whistler rarely rendered flesh in the rosy tints we expect to see. He was not a literalist. To him flesh was something to be "treated;" that is, to be reduced to the scheme of harmony which formed the basis of his motive. Many of his faces are mere spots, well drawn, but only sufficiently modeled to make them sit in place, and the flesh is a tawny gray in keeping with the remainder of the tone. He could, and sometimes did, however, paint fully modeled heads as boldly articulated as those of Frans Hals.

In "The Music Room" there are more nearly positive colors, but of peculiar quality. It is a play of white, black, green, and maroon, using these terms to suggest tones of color, though the words convey no meaning in view of the remarkable quality of the tones. There is a considerable display of white portiere and curtains, a chintz of quiet green sprays and roses, the wainscot and woodwork of dull green. On the floor lies a maroon carpet. In a large mirror a figure is reflected. On the maroon carpet stands a woman in black riding habit, one white glove making an isolated spot on a very dark portiere. A child sits reading, part of her white frock nearly lost on the white portiere and one black shoe also nearly lost on the dark carpet. Considering that there is no effort at naturalism, but merely an *abstract* of all this matter, it can be perceived that only a consummate artist could undertake such a proposition. Whistler delighted in abstractions and had a Satanic joy in tilt-

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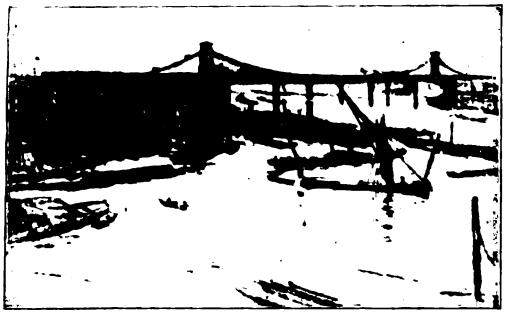
ing against people's vulgar fondness for realism. But he secured wonderful results. From the Japanese he learned this manner of stating facts abstractly, though the work in no way recalls a Japanese painting. He used the principle but did not imitate.

"No one understands as well as he the mysterious relations of painting and of music, the seven notes and the seven colors, and the way to play these with the sharps and flats of the prism. Even as a symphony is in D or a sonata is in A, his were orchestrated according to a tone," says a writer who knows.

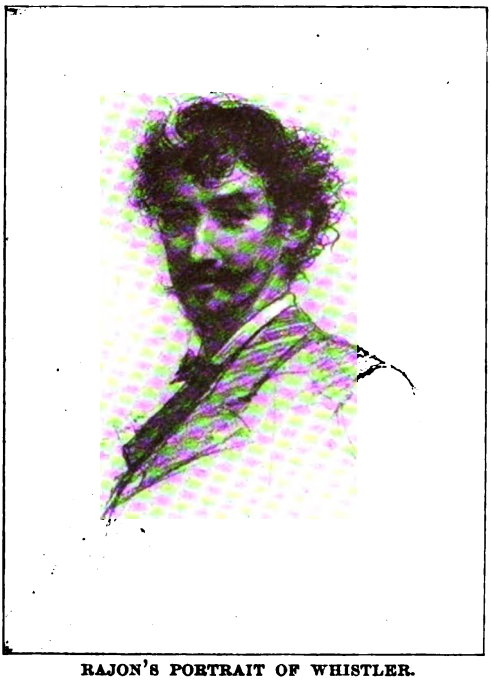
The English critics could not understand why he refused to give the public the pleasure of enjoying their well-beloved anecdote. Regarding the picture "A Harmony in Gray and Gold," they said, referring to an indicated figure in it, "Why not call it 'Trotty Veck' and sell it for a round harmony in golden guineas?" The artist replied: "All I know is I wanted a spot of black in that place. I don't care about the past, present, or future of that figure." "As music is the poetry of sound, so painting is the poetry of sight, and subject matter has nothing to do with harmony."

Said a critic: "An artist is not an isolated fact; he is the result of a certain *milieu* and a certain *entourage,* and can no more be born of a nation that is devoid of a sense of beauty than a fig can grow on a thistle—the poet is the supreme artist."

To the popular notion that he painted flesh lower than nature's true tone, he said that things should not "stand out," rather that they should sit within the frame. He declared that the high-sounding and empty criticisms of Ruskin would



OLD HUNGERFORD BRIDGE, LONDON. ETCHING BY WHISTLER.



RAJON'S PORTRAIT OF WHISTLER.

have given Titian "the same surprise that was Balaam's when the first great critic proffered his opinion." When it was suggested to him that the ass was right, he replied that it was the first time that an ass had been a heaven-inspired critic and that the days of miracles were over.

Wedmore, a critic, complained that Whistler had misquoted him, using the word "understand" where the critic had said "understate." "My carelessness is culpable," replied Whistler. "I have known all along that with Mr. Wedmore, as with his brethren, it is always a matter of understating and not at all of understanding."

He was for a time the president of the Royal Society of British Artists, but finally failed of reëlection. During the time that the sentiment against him was growing, one of his friends resigned. "Ah, the early rat," cried Whistler. When at last the Whistler element in the society was all out, he said that the "artists" abandoned it and left only the "British."

Whistler has left many drawings in pastel of the nude, exquisite abstractions, never literal or realistic. When another artist, Mr. Horsley, had spoken in condemnation of nudes, he sent another to

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the exhibition, inscribing underneath it, *"Horsley soit qui mal y pense."* He did not maintain his affection for William M. Chase, though they had been fast friends for a long time. After the break he said: "I who was charming and made him beautiful on canvas—the masher of the avenue." Chase's sister remarked, "Mr. Chase amuses Whistler." "Oh, rarely, rarely," was the quick repartee. He wrote: "Oscar (Wilde) has the courage of the convictions of others." "One could not continually disappoint a continent" (regarding a repeatedly postponed visit to America). A cartoon in Punch showed the artist and Oscar Wilde in a conversation about some matter, and Wilde telegraphed to the painter: "Ridiculous; when you and I are together we never talk about anything but ourselves." Whistler wired back: "You forget; when you and I get together we never talk about anything but me." "There are only Velasquez, Hokusai, and myself in art," is reported as a saying of the self-satisfied Whistler. The great Spaniard and the equally great Japanese were, as one might say, his art teachers. Seymour Hayden, the distinguished surgeon-etcher, was his brother-in-law, but between the two no love was lost. "A brother-in-law is not a connection calling for sentiment," said our painter. And again, when he saw Hayden in the exhibition where were many of Whistler's pictures: "Just came in for his morning bitters." When Rossetti showed him one of his pictures and declared that he had written a sonnet upon it, Whistler advised him to take the picture out of the frame and set the sonnet in its place. "There are those who have the approval of the public and live," is another of his sentiments. He despised popularity, placing at the head of his book, "The Gentle Art of Making Enemies," this dedication: "To the rare few, who in early life have rid themselves of the friendship of the many, these pathetic papers are inscribed." He could well add: "To be great is to be misunderstood."

X-RAYS DANGEROUS TO MANIPULATE.—On August 2, while experimenting with the X-ray, Mr. Thomas A. Edison received injuries which may deprive him of his eyesight, and his assistant, Mr. Charles Dally, lost both his arms. These, however, are not the only persons to suffer from the baneful effects of the Roentgen ray. Two physicians in the radiograph department of the London Hospital have been so severely injured that they have had to suspend their practice temporarily and it is said that the use of the rays for the direct examination of injuries has been abandoned.

The pathological effects resulting from the use of the X-ray seem to be cumulative. Up to a certain point they are highly beneficial, and beyond that correspondingly harmful. A physician in charge of one of the departments of Guy's Hospital, London, is quoted to the following effect:

"The wonderful cures accomplished by X-rays in the treatment of rodent ulcers have been attributed by several eminent authorities to the enriching action of the rays on the blood by an increase of phagocytes. Edison states that violet light upsets his digestion. Is he confusing X-rays with ultra violet rays? About 1,200 persons are treated here annually by X-rays and I know of no case where injury has resulted from the treatment."

Notwithstanding this testimony, the cases of injury above mentioned show evidence of the following facts: The first symptom of X-ray poisoning is a troublesome inflammation of the hands, accompanied by swellings that resemble chilblains, and by depression of spirits and insomnia. Down the center of each finger-nail is formed a ridge in which pus is generated. After removal of the matter the nail tends to perish, the injury to the matrix impairing subsequent mature growth. Dr. Wilson, one of the two physicians injured in the London Hospital, explains that he has not made any direct examinations with the rays for the last eighteen months, yet his hands show little improvement, hot fomentations being still necessary. His injury deprived him of his finger-nails, and it is practically certain that his nails will never grow properly again.

In all the cases of injury herein mentioned the harm is severest in the finger-tips, decreasing towards the wrist. Slight evidences are generally to be found on more parts of the body. The eyes are also liable to suffer from the ray flicker, as in the case of Mr. Edison.

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WHITE DEATH, THE.—That terrible and peculiar phenomenon, "white death," known only to the Rocky Mountain regions of Colorado, Wyoming, Montana, and Idaho, appeared last winter at frequent intervals, although during the past dozen years it has been encountered but a few times. Men of science have named the phenomenon "white death," for want of a better name. It is really a frozen fog and occurs at unexpected places and at unexpected times, sometimes covering an area of several miles square, and is constantly on the move. As this death-dealing maze of frost never appears except on calm, bright mornings, the causes which lead up to its formation and the atmospheric conditions which make it possible for the mass to move at a rapid rate without a breeze have baffled explanation. It kills by clogging respiration.

THE WORLD'S EVENTS.

(*From July 15 to August 15, 1903.*)

UNITED STATES.

July 15.—Brigadier-General Robert Shaw Oliver has been appointed to succeed William Carey Sanger as assistant secretary of war. ....It is announced that U. S. Senator Marion Butler, from North Carolina, has just closed a contract in the state of Tamaulipas, Mexico, with the Boer generals, Joubert and O'Donnell, who thereby purchased 100,000 acres of land to be used for colonization by the Boers. The tract is located between the Sota La Marina River and the Carnazal River, and fronts its entire distance on the Gulf of Mexico. An option was taken on an additional 100,000 acres. ....A white man, William Thacker, was taken from the jail of Flemingsburg, Kentucky, and lynched by a mob. Thacker had been given a life sentence for murder, but had appealed his case and was awaiting another trial. As he had some money and could command the support of influential men, it was feared lest he might escape punishment altogether.... As a result of the new Illinois child labor law which went into effect July 1, 2,500 children have already been taken out of factories in Chicago. This law requires that children between the ages of fourteen and sixteen years must not work more than eight hours in any one day, nor more than forty-eight hours a week. Some employers, rather than have part of their force working eight hours a day and the other part ten, have discontinued the employment of children under sixteen years old in any capacity. Other manufacturers have so arranged their working schedule that minors report for work one hour later in the morning and leave one hour earlier at night.

July 18.—Market values of the great volume of railway and industrial stocks traded in New York show a shrinkage in the last year of $1,766,799,000, compared with the high prices of 1902. The figures represent, largely, not a sweeping away of established and so-called intrinsic values, but a loss of ephemeral prices established by extraordinary speculation.

July 19.—Governor Taft has directed the treasurer of the Philippines to authorize the banks of the islands to issue the new Philippine currency, beginning July 20....More immigrants arrived in the United States during the fiscal year that ended June 30 than in any other year in the history of the country. The total arrivals for the twelve months numbered 857,046, being 68,054 above the previous record year of 1882, when restrictive legislation was pending in Congress, and a total of 788,992 immigrants, many of them alien contract laborers, were rushed into the United States. The Italians held the record for the entire year, as last year, with a total of 230,622 immigrants, an increase over the previous year of 52,247. Austria-Hungary is second in the year's record, with a total of 206,011, an increase of 34,022. The Russian Empire and Finland are third, with a total of 136,093, an increase of 28,748.

July 21.—United States Steel Corporation's shares, both in common and preferred stocks, are becoming steadily weaker. Common stock sells at 22, the lowest price at which the security has ever sold, not excepting the Northern Pacific panic day in May, 1901. Preferred stock sells at 70, this price being slightly higher than the previous low record. The losses in the steel issues, amounting to 2¾ in the common, and 3⅞ in the preferred, have cast a gloom over Wall Street.

July 22.—President Dickson of the Cuyahoga Telephone Company of Cleveland, in a circular letter to all employes, announces that as an experiment one-fifth of the surplus earnings of the company will be set aside and distributed among its employes in proportion to their salaries, dating from July 1. The plan is adopted in the belief that it will result in a more efficient service, greater economy, and larger earnings, and, if successful, will be permanent, after a trial of six months. Several hundred employes are affected.

July 25.—Here is a fact concerning the offspring of defectives brought forward by Dr. J. M. Murdoch, of the Polk (Pa.) Home for Defectives: "In the early part of the present century there lived in a village in Western Pennsylvania a female imbecile. Instead of being

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UNITED STATES RIFLEMEN WINNING THE PALMA TROPHY IN ENGLAND.
The United States regained the Cup with a score of 1,570, Great Britain taking second place with 1,555, Canada followed with 1,518, Australia made 1,501, Natal made 1,399, Norway made 1,241, and France 1,230.

placed beyond the possibility of procreating more of her kind, she was allowed to go unrestrained, with the result that at present there are about one hundred of her descendants in existence, of whom nearly all are a burden on society. Many of these are now in institutions and will have to be kept there until death. Their care, before they have all passed away, will have cost the State an enormous sum of money."

July 25-28.—As a result of a race riot at Danville, Ill., two men are killed and about twenty wounded, including both whites and blacks. A mob of 5,000 whites besieged the jail demanding the life of a negro prisoner (alleged to have assaulted a white woman). Sheriff Whitlock and his deputies, ignoring the mob's threat to hang them, fired volleys at the rioters, and defended the jail until four companies of militia arrived and restored order in the town at the point of the bayonet. Sheriff Whitlock expresses determination to arrest fifty members of the mob, including the injured, whose wounds are to be used as evidence against them. He says he can identify this number of rioters. The Illinois State Bar Association urges prompt action by the grand jury.

July 27.—Lawrence Murphy, formerly treasurer of the journeymen stonecutters' union in New York City, is convicted of grand larceny in the first degree. His sensational trial was on a charge of embezzlement of the union's funds in the amount of $12,000.—July 31.—Lawrence Murphy is sentenced to serve a term of five years and six months in Sing Sing Prison.

July 29.—The business men of Idaho Springs, Colorado, took from the jail fourteen union miners, suspected of complicity in the blowing up of the Sun and Moon Mine buildings on the night of July 28, and marched them out of the town, and warned them not to return. The mayor says it has come to be a question whether the citizens or a few labor agitators shall rule the town.

Aug. 2.—Mr. Thomas A. Edison endangers his vision while experimenting with the X-ray, and his assistant, Charles Dally, has lost both arms.

Aug. 4.—Charles M. Schwab resigns the presidency of the United States Steel Corporation. He is succeeded in the office by William E. Corey, who has been acting as vice-president.

Aug. 5.—In rejecting sixty applications for naturalization papers, Judge Clifford D. Gregory, in the County Court, Albany, New York, established a precedent by making the following declaration: "I will not naturalize any person who comes before me and is unable to speak the English language sufficiently to make himself understood. I will compel them to answer questions regarding their age, place of nativity, when they arrived in the United States, and any other questions which I deem essential to good citizenship, and if they fail to make satisfactory answers I will refuse to grant them the necessary papers. When a man has been in this country five years and is unable to talk our language, in my opinion, he is not fit to be admitted to citizenship, and I will act accordingly." ....The Chicago, Rock Island and Pacific Railroad granted an increase in wages of 12 per cent. to its conductors and 15 per cent. to its trainmen, and thereby prevented a strike and brought to a close a general movement for higher pay and better working conditions that has benefited over 40,000 men and added $10,000,000 to the yearly payrolls of the railroads of the West. The Rock Island was the last company to make terms with its train employes and, except the Wabash road, was the only one actually threatened with a strike.

Aug. 8.—Lieutenant-General Nelson A. Miles, general commanding the United States Army,

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having reached the age limit of sixty-four years, retires from active service.

Aug. 9.—In a letter to Governor Durbin of Indiana, President Roosevelt warns the people of the United States that by permitting or condoning mob violence they are weakening the bonds of civilization and increasing the chances of the overthrow of the republic and of the substitution therefor of a system in which there shall be violent alternations of anarchy and tyranny.

Aug. 11.—John T. Graves, Southern journalist and orator, lecturing at Chautauqua, declares lynching to be riot, anarchy, and lawlessness, but at the same time here to stay until it has destroyed the crime that provokes it, a crime beside which murder is a misdemeanor and death a holiday, or until the negro race has been entirely separated from the whites....The recent slump in securities has profoundly modified the estimate in which leading speculators are held by Wall Street operators. Mr. J. D. Rockefeller is now considered the king of American finance and railroading, while Mr. J. P. Morgan has taken a second place.

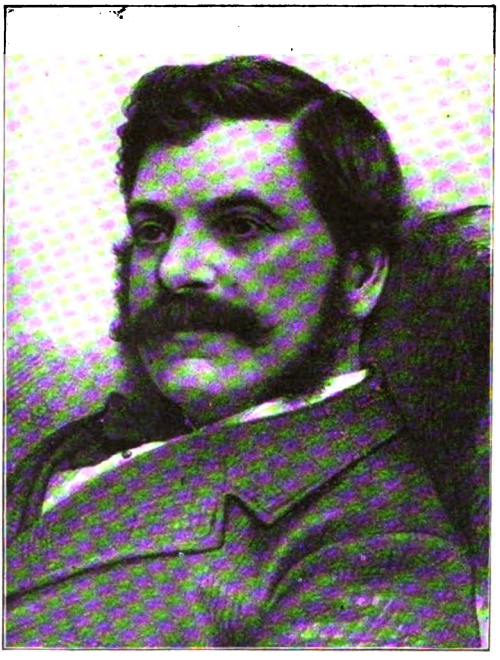
Aug. 12.—The special riot grand jury at Danville, Ill., returns true bills against eighteen alleged participants in the mob that attempted to lynch a negro in the jail, but was repelled by Sheriff Whitlock and his deputies....Charged with dilatoriness, negligence, and unbusiness-like methods, Henry Ives Cobb, special architect of the new Chicago post-office building, is summarily dismissed by Secretary of the Treasury Shaw....The plumbing supply houses of Chicago have gradually raised prices, until they now stand 25 per cent. higher than they would in an open market. This legal robbery of the public—which ultimately pays the advance, of course—is effected by a uniform discount and an underground agreement....During a dense fog, the U. S. battleship Massachusetts ran into a dry ledge on the most southwesterly point of Egg Rock, near Bar Harbor, Me., and filled its two forward compartments with water.

Aug. 13.—The Panama Canal Committee of the Colombian Congress has adopted nine amendments to the Panama Canal treaty with the United States, any one of which will certainly long postpone its conclusion and probably cancel it.

Aug. 14.—Curtis Jett and Thomas White are convicted of the murder of J. B. Marcum, at Jackson, Ky., on May 4, and are sentenced to prison for life....A Chicago pool, formed by the Chicago Masons' and Builders' Association, Chicago brick manufacturers, lime and stone firms, and the Chicago Bricklayers' Union, has raised the prices of brick, lime, and stone over 40 per cent. since its formation began in 1899, and has thus impeded progress in building in that city.

EUROPE.

July 15.—The Czar has abolished castigation with cudgels and cat-o'-nine-tails, chaining to the car, and shaving the head, all which punishments were hitherto inflicted for certain offenses on persons exiled to penal settlements and to the mines. The cudgel and the "cat" are replaced in the new statute by prolongation of term or by solitary confinement up to 100 days, with bread and water, except every third day, when hot food will be served at one meal. The revised statute of June 15 prescribes chastisement with birch rods up to 100 blows "for slight offenses and misdemeanors." To complete the strength of the Russian army and navy for the present year, over 320,000 men have been called to the colors. The plan for the formation of a new police force to maintain order and assure security in the rural districts of forty-six provinces of European Russia will be carried out immediately in fifteen of these provinces... James Abbott McNeil Whistler, the great American artist, died suddenly at his residence, Cheyne-Walk, Chelsea, London....By means of radium, Dr. Mackenzie Davidson has cured a case of rodent cancer of the nose, at Charing Cross Hospital, London.



B. L. FARJEON.
The English Novelist who died July 23.

July 20.—Pope Leo. XIII. dies in the Vatican, Rome, after an acute illness of three weeks.

July 22.—King Edward VII. and Queen Alexandra arrive in Dublin on their state visit to the people of Ireland....At a banquet given at the House of Commons to the members of the international arbitration group of the French Chamber of Deputies by a distinguished group of British parliamentarians, with similar inclinations, all the speakers vigorously championed a closer understanding between Great Britain and France, the disarmament of nations, and international arbitration.

July 25.—Seventy thousand girls and 138,000

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boys under fourteen years of age are working in England. Two-sevenths of the girls are employed in cotton mills and one-third as domestic servants.

Aug. 4.—Agreement is issued whereby the British Government is to pay the Cunard Steamship Company a subsidy of $340,000 annually for twenty years. During this period the company has contracted to convey the mails for the subsidy instead of being paid by weight. The contract binds the company to use its best boats, at a higher rate of speed, and begins with the first sailing of the second new steamer to be built by the company. These steamers are to be built under a former agreement with the government, which, for certain concessions, involving war service, is to subsidize the new vessels at $375,000 per year each....Cardinal Giuseppe Sarto, patriarch of Venice, is elected pope, assuming the title of Pius X.

Aug. 5.—Britain and France. Baron d'Estournelles, who headed the French legislative group that visited London in the interests of arbitration, reports that the British statesmen interviewed were unanimously agreed with the French group that the new policy between the two nations should include: 1. An arbitration treaty. 2. A reduction in the overwhelming naval expenses. 3. A settlement of long outstanding differences....Andrew Carnegie makes known his intention to donate $2,500,000 in United States Steel Corporation bonds to his native town, Dunformline, Scotland. This gift is for the maintenance of a theater, the encouragement of horticulture among the working classes, and the advancement of technical education in the district, which is the center of the linen industry. The administrators of the gift are charged also with the moral and material interests of the town. The gift is to be used also to keep up the estate of Pittencrief, which he has purchased as a pleasure ground, and which contains the tower wherein Malcolm Canmore married Princess Margaret.

Aug. 6.—The twenty-year agreement of the International Mercantile Marine Company with the British Admiralty and the London Board of Trade, dating from September 23, 1902, provides that the British companies included in the combine shall remain on a footing of equality with other British companies in respect to any military, naval, or postal service that the British government may require from British mercantile marine. No British ship in the combine shall be transferred to a foreign registry without the consent of the president of the Board of Trade. The vessels shall continue to be officered by British subjects and carry the same proportion of British sailors as is prescribed in the case of any other British ships engaged in the same line of trade.

Aug. 9.—Giuseppe Sarto is crowned head of the Roman Catholic Church, with the title of Pope Piux X....Macedonian and Bulgarian insurgents have burned the village of Djivarek, near Monastir, and massacred its inhabitants, and done the same to several neighboring villages. Insurgents and Turks fought at Krushevo, with the loss of 160 men.

Aug. 10.—The burning of three trains in the tunnel of the Metropolitan Electric Ry., Paris, caused the horrible death of 84 persons. A defective dynamo in one train failed to pull and then fired the train and another engaged in pushing it, whereupon a third train collided with them.

Aug. 11.—Strike riots continue in South Russia. On Aug. 5 twenty rioters were killed by the military at Nicolaieff, and on Aug. 7, sixty at Kieff, besides many wounded, of course. This labor rising is the most dangerous that the Russian bureaucracy has yet met.

Aug. 14.—A court-martial held at Monastir, Turkey, condemned to death the Turkish gendarme, Halim, for the murder of M. Rostkovski, the Russian consul at Monastir. The sentence was immediately carried out.

ASIA.

July 27.—The Russian administration at New Chwang stops the exportation of wheat from China to Japan. The exportation of grain from Chinese ports is illegal, but the Russians have heretofore ignored the law.

Aug. 2.—The execution of the Chinese reformer, Shen Chien, on July 31, has terrified other reformers into inactivity and silence. Prince Su risked his office by opposing the execution. Foreigners, who had hoped that the Empress Dowager's association with the ladies of the legation would civilize her, are discouraged.

Aug. 7.—All the princes of the Manchu dynnasty meet at Peking on the summons of the Empress to take measures for insuring the throne. The assembly was probably motived by the disclosures made at the trial of the reformer, Shen Chien, who was beaten to death July 31. Shen had stated that over a hundred high officials in Peking were associated with him in reform.

Aug. 12.—Russia establishes a new viceroyalty, comprising the Amur district and the Kwantung Province, which had been created in 1899. Vice-Admiral Alexieff is appointed viceroy, and is to take over the civil administration from the ministries, besides having control of both the troops in the new viceroyalty and the Russian fleet in the Pacific.

OCEANIA.

July 16.—United States warships take possession of seven small islands lying near the coast of Borneo, and said to be of strategic importance. The islands have no white population. They are Baguan, Taganao, Bakkungaan, Lihiman, Booam, Sibeung and Langkayan. These islands are claimed by the United States under a treaty whereby they were ceded to Spain in 1885, thus making them part of the Philippine group.

WEST INDIES.

Aug. 11.—The northern and eastern parts of Jamaica were devastated by a hurricane, which killed some 200 people, destroyed $12,000,000 worth of property, and rendered thousands homeless and starving.

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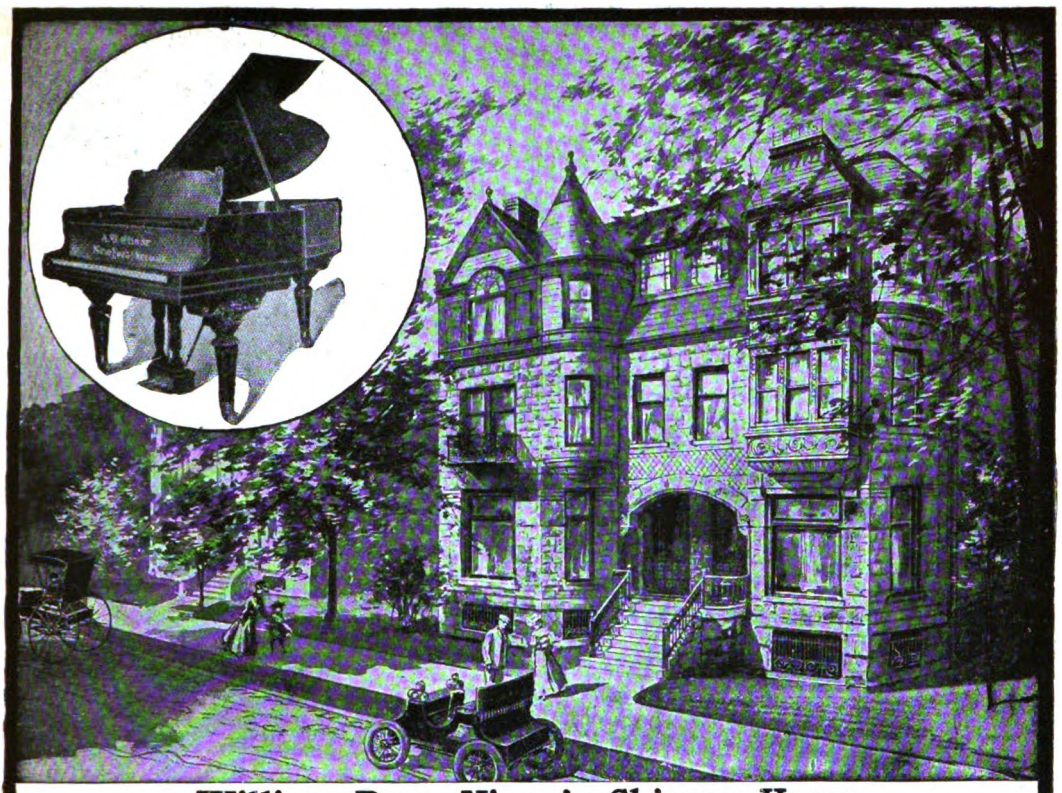

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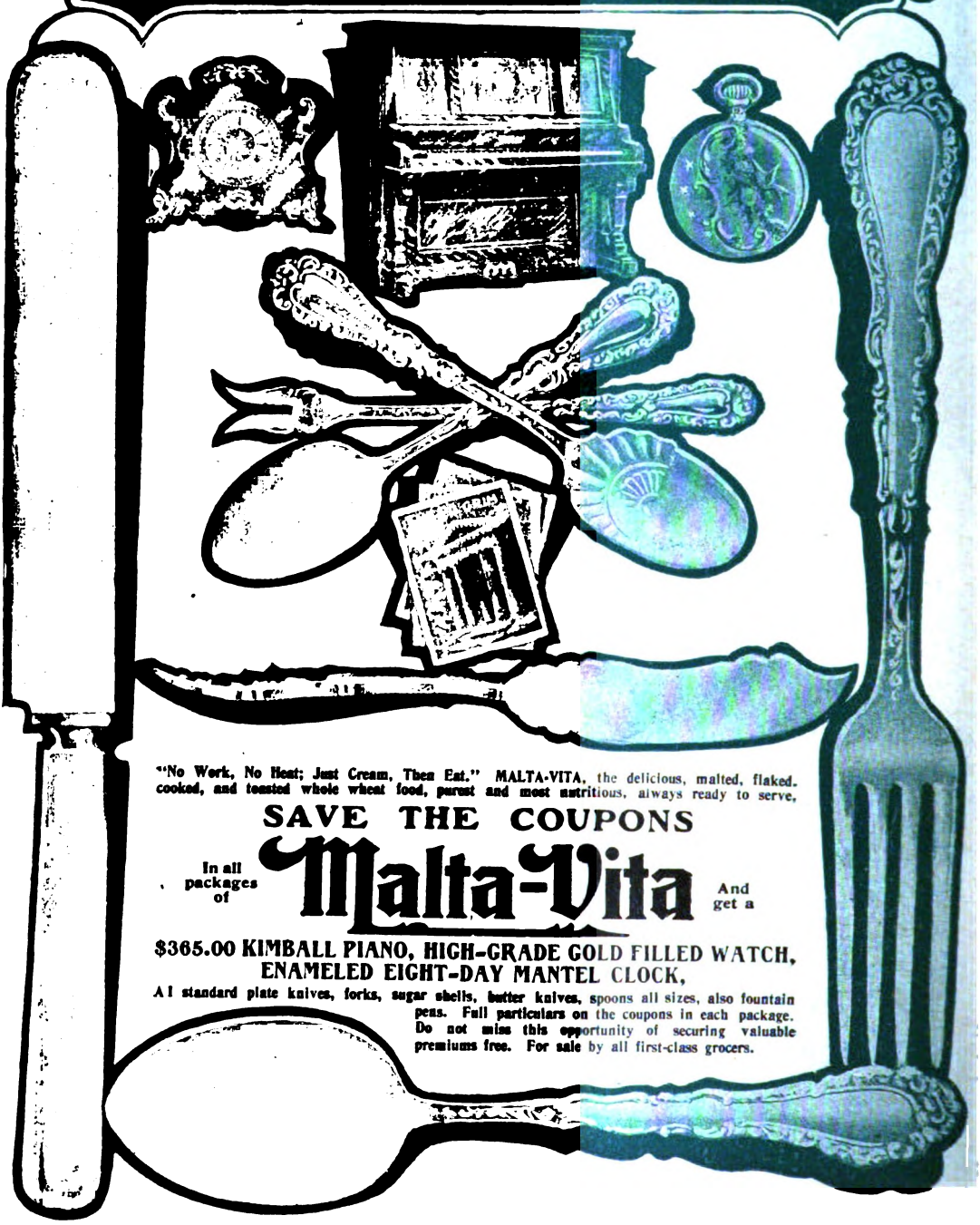

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EVENTS OF THE MONTH

World Politics

The Affair at Beirut

On August 23, the United States was startled by a dispatch from Minister Leishman from Constantinople that William C. Magelssen, vice-consul at Beirut, had been killed. President Roosevelt immediately ordered Admiral Cotton to proceed at once with his squadron to Beirut. Although it subsequently developed that there had been a mistake in the despatch and that Mr. Magelssen had not been injured by the would-be assassin, the president did not countermand the order, and the San Francisco and Brooklyn proceeded as originally ordered. A few days after their arrival, there broke out a quarrel between the Christian and the Mohammedan inhabitants of Beirut, in which several of the Christians were killed. Whether this disturbance was in any way due to the presence of the warships is impossible to say with certainty. It is not in the least improbable that such was the case. It is impossible for those at a distance to appreciate the hatred which exists between the Mohammedans and Christians of Syria. In no country, probably, is fanaticism so prevalent or so virulent. To increase the evil, differences in religion are accompanied by political animosities. The city of Beirut is faraway the most modernized of any in Syria, yet these differences persist among its inhabitants. The Christians are largely Armenians, while the Mohammedans are Turks. Between the two nations runs a great river of blood. It would be natural, therefore, if the presence of a fleet of a Christian power should in some way give the Christians new confidence and aggressiveness, or, on the other hand, stir up the wrath of their Mohammedan enemies.

The American Interests at Stake in Syria

None the less, President Roosevelt was right in not countermanding his order to Admiral Cotton. America has large interests in Syria. The American College in Beirut is an institution fit to be compared with any college in the United States, and along with it there are a successful mission and a large printing establishment. In Zahleh, a town a few hours' distance from Beirut, are other schools, and there are missionaries and teachers scattered throughout the entire Lebanon region. At Harput, on the Euphrates, there is another very prosperous school, which is already in no small danger of being attacked by the Turks. Up to the present, America has been regarded by the entire Turkish Empire as an inferior power. Great Britain, France, Germany and even Italy are all held in proper respect, but the United States is hardly more than a hazy El Dorado, to which men may emigrate. An American is much more at the mercy of the Turkish officials than the citizens of almost any other state. The

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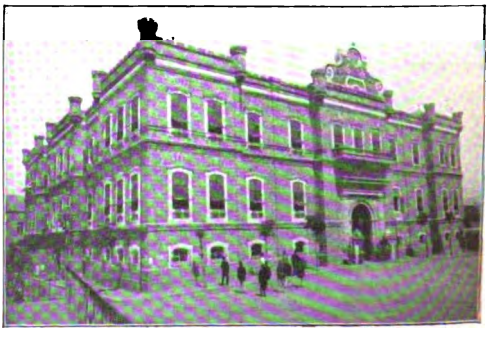
BEIRUT AND THE LEBANON MOUNTAINS

The serious anti-Christian outbreak following the attack on Vice-Consul Magelssen has drawn the attention of the world to this picturesque port.

presence of the war vessels in Asiatic waters has already gone far toward helping the Turkish officials to realize that Americans have rights and that the American government is able to protect American rights. The replacing of the incompetent vali (governor) of Beirut by the efficient though cruel Nazim Pasha of Damascus was in response to American demands. In the disorders which would be sure to follow any civil war in the Turkish Empire the American marines would be of distinct aid to European residents of Syria.

A Long Conflict Imminent in Macedonia

The disturbances in Macedonia seem to have assumed the proportions of a general insurrection, which requires the mobilizing of large bodies of troops, and which is by no means an easy matter to quell. The experience of the Boer war shows plainly the great advantage possessed by small bodies of combatants capable of moving rapidly and aided by the sympathy of the population among whom they are operating. But the Boer war merely illustrates anew a very old truth. The Cuban insurrection was based on the same principle, as were the Filipino wars, both against Spain and against the United States. Our own partisan campaign against England in the South during the revolutionary war is another example. The insurgents in Macedonia apparently are using the same tactics. The country is rough and exceedingly difficult for the movement of troops, and hence peculiarly favorable to partisan activity. Nothing brought the Boers to terms but the depopulation of



BEIRUT CITY HALL.

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the country, followed by laborious "drives" carried out by overwhelming forces. The Turks must have recourse to similar methods if they hope to restore that condition of comparative quiet which in the Turkish empire passes for order.

Will the Powers Interfere?

The situation is further complicated by the danger of foreign intervention. The great powers do not wish to intervene, but they may be compelled to take action if peace does not come soon. Actual anarchy within the confines of Europe, and especially within a state for which Europe collectively is responsible, cannot long be tolerated. But neither Russia nor Austria-Hungary will move if action can be avoided. Bulgaria, however, is in a different position. Macedonia is contiguous to the Bulgarian boundary. The great bulk of the population of Macedonia are Bulgarians. The disturbed district is that very territory which, in 1878, was given to Bulgaria by the Russo-Turkish treaty of San Stefano, but which, by the cynical policy of Beaconsfield, was relegated to Turkey. It is impossible that Bulgaria should not sympathize acutely with the suffering people of Macedonia. It is true that Bulgaria is nominally still a dependency of the Turkish empire. But this dependence is little more than a fiction.

How the Insurrection Is Directed

The present situation has been brought about by methods traditionally used in accomplishing freedom for the Balkan peoples within the last century. There is a revolutionary committee in Macedonia. There is another committee with similar aims in Bulgaria. Money has been obtained by voluntary contribution and by a system of actual taxation. Bulgarians in Macedonia are assessed a specific sum by the revolutionary committee, and if payment is withheld the property of the recalcitrant is sure to meet with some disaster. It is said that the ransom paid for Miss Stone also went into the Macedonian war chest. By all these methods means have been found for the organization and arming of a number of partisan bands, and such operations as a few months since could hardly be considered as more than the exploits of bandits are replaced by attacks on outposts, the destruction of small garrisons and the interruption of communication.

THE HARBOR OF BEIRUT, SYRIA
Where Admiral Cotton's ships are now lying, to guard American interests.

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HARPUT, ASIATIC TURKEY

The buildings of the Congregational mission college appear along the horizon. An attempt to burn one of these buildings is being investigated by the Turkish authorities by the demand of the United States.

The Usual Turkish Atrocities

In attempting to repress the insurrection the Turks are charged with such massacres and nameless atrocities as those of which they were guilty in Bulgaria in 1876. It is even said that already fifty thousand Macedonian villagers have been put to death by the Turks, and the Bulgarian government has sent to the powers a detailed memorandum setting forth a long list of well authenticated specific cases of outrage. The information which comes to the world from the seat of disturbance is very confused, and the exact truth may never be known. The Turks claim that the outrages, so far as they exist, are the work of Bulgarian bandits, who are to a large extent equipped and sent into Macedonia from Bulgaria. Of course this, if true, constitutes at least a violation of neutrality, even assuming that Bulgaria is virtually independent. There is not much room for doubt that it is true to a large extent, notwithstanding the indignant denial of the Bulgarian government. It is now pretty well known that in 1876 there were bands of Bulgarian bandits in the mountains who in fact were insurgents against the Turks, and who in many cases punished the sluggishness of compatriots by burning villages. All such acts were at that time charged to the Turks. It seems rather more than likely that the Bulgarian patriots of to-day are using similar tactics. It is much to their interest that Europe should become convinced that the helpless inhabitants of Macedonia can be rescued from slaughter only by intervention, and to charge up to the Turks all cases of atrocity under such circumstances is almost the spontaneous act of the public throughout the world. No doubt, however, after all such deductions are made, there still remains a heavy burden of barbarity justly chargeable to the Turks. They are an oriental people. They are accustomed to regard the subject races as having no rights which a Turk is bound to respect. They are brutal with a true Asiatic brutality. Above all, they are religious fanatics, taught from infancy to despise Christians.

AFTER A TURKISH MASSACRE

Women of Uskub attending the graves of murdered relatives.

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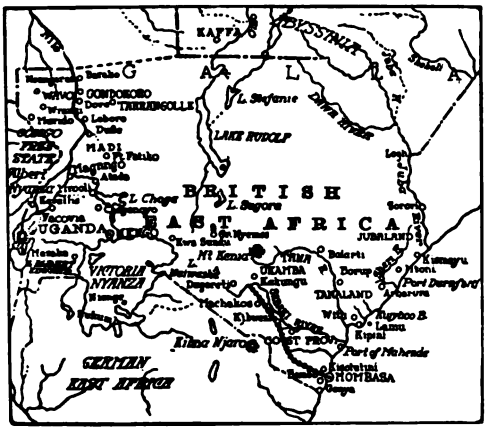
Is the Insurrection Justifiable?

Of course the horrors of Turkish massacre may be avoided by refraining from insurrection. Should we refrain? The Christian subjects of the sultan have few rights before the law. They are very unlikely to find justice in a Turkish court. Taxation is capricious and burdensome. Government is corrupt and inefficient. Where the American colonies in 1775 had one reason for revolt from Great Britain the subject races of the Turkish empire in 1903 have a hundred reasons. Under similar conditions we should all be revolutionists, and we should not be likely to be too scrupulous as to the means which we might employ against such a tyranny.

Great Britain Offers East Africa to the Jews

The meeting of the sixth Zionist convention at Basel, during the last week in August, bids fair to become epochmaking. Dr. Theodor Herzl, its indefatigable president, presented to the conference an offer on the part of the British government of a tract of land in British East Africa for the use of the Jewish colonists, under an autonomous government, subject only to the crown. The territory contains two hundred and eighty thousand square miles, an excellent seaport, Bombasa, which is connected with the interior by six hundred miles of railway. Already it has a complete system of courts, a postal system, schools and mission churches. It exports gum, ivory, rubber, cattle and hides to the amount of rather more than half a million dollars. Although the country is directly under the equator the interior is composed of plateaus fit for pasturing large herds of cattle and the temperature is not too high for others than negroes. There are great forests of pine and bamboo and the land itself seems capable of high cultivation. At present it is inhabited largely though sparsely by negroes and it could easily sustain a large population.



BRITISH EAST AFRICA
Offered to the Zionists by Great Britain

DR. THEODOR HERZL
President of the Zionist International Conference

Could the Zionists Accept It?

This proposal aroused considerable discussion, not only among the members of the conference, but on the part of Jews everywhere. It was urged by some that to colonize East Africa would be to abandon the real purpose of Zionism, the establishment of a Jewish state in Palestine. On the other hand it is urged by men like Max Nordau and Israel Zangwill that the establishment of a Jewish colony in Africa would in no way prevent the establishment of a Palestinian nation, when such a step becomes feasible. The conference itself voted two hundred and twenty-seven to one hundred and seventy-seven to appoint a committee to visit and investigate the land offered by Great Britain. If this committee should

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LEON ZOLOTKOFF
Grand Master of the Grand Gate, Knights of Zion: A Chicago attorney who is one of the leading Zionists in this country

report favorably there can be no question that the necessary funds will be provided without touching the large sum—already $2,500,000—gained by the sale of stock of the Colonial Trust for the original purpose of the Zionist movement. Yet will the Jews prove good colonists? Their numbers are rapidly increasing in Palestine, but their colonies there have not proved altogether successful. There are, however, many reasons for their failure and nothing would be more unfair than to argue from them that the Jews will make poor farmers. It is true that, generally speaking, Jews have dwelt in cities, but this has largely been due to circumstances over which they had no control. Zionism in any case will rise and fall on the agricultural capacity of the Jew. In the nature of things it would seem that he is as likely to be as successful a farmer in Africa as in Palestine. The interest in the latter country is wholly one of sentiment. There is no possibility of building up a great nation in a land smaller than Wales. The attitude of the leading Zionists to the East African project is, therefore, to be commended. Without abandoning the hope of ultimately acquiring a quasi-national center in Palestine, they perceive that East Africa could well become a school for colonization.

Will Russia Aid?

Another interesting feature of the conference was Dr. Herzl's report upon the favoring attitude of Russia toward Zionism. His statement that the Russian government was favorable to the original proposition of Zionism and could be relied upon to render moral and material support whenever Zionism undertook to decrease Jewish population in Russia undoubtedly represented the position of Von Plehve. The attitude of Russia towards the Jew has, beyond question, been affected by the action of President Roosevelt in the matter of the Kishinev petition. At the same time it is too much to expect that Russian officials will literally undertake, as Von Plehve says, "to protect the mandatories of the Zionists to the Ottoman government and facilitate the work of the emigration societies, and even assist these societies, evidently outside the resources of the state, by means of contributions levied on the Jews." Such large sentences may mean too much or too little. If Russia decides to assist the Jews of the empire to migrate to Palestine, Zionism will certainly be in no worse condition if in the meantime it has built up a strong autonomous colony in East Africa under British protection.

Japan's Calmness under Russia's Provocation

If one compare the conditions existing in Japan during the summer months with the state of excitement in America in the days of the Venezuela trouble or the days preceding the Spanish war, the contrast is remarkable. That an oriental people naturally given to violent outbursts and often characterized as the Frenchmen of the East, should exhibit such remarkable self-restraint in the midst of such reasonable excuses for excitement seems difficult of explanation. At the time of writing, whether the outcome will be war or peace it is most difficult to tell. Certainly, as for some weeks, the indications are very strong for war, and yet the nation manifests an

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almost ominous calmness and self-control. The Japanese press has been most calm, and though for weeks the papers have been full of war news and reports of the Russian advances, yet editorials have been invariably sane. Japan has undoubtedly counted the cost of war. She will not enter upon it blindly. It is beyond question that she knows more about conditions in Manchuria and her chances of success than any one else. It is also evident that while it may be possible to push Japan to war, yet it will be entered into only when every other measure fails. A strange impression seems to have gained credence in some parts of America that it may be as well for China to come under the control of Russia. This arises in part from ignorance of Russia's oppressive attitude toward the Chinese and of the possibilities from Japan. At the time of the siege of Peking, no soldiers were so brutal and heartless toward the Chinese as the Russians. The stories told by eye-witnesses of the cold-blooded and heartless butcheries make one's blood chill. The Japanese have shown a power to lead and guide China such as no other power possesses. The hope of China is to come under the tutelage of Japan. Both eastern nations, they understand each other's condition, and having been conquered by Japan, China has come to have a respect for the Island Empire that gives Japan the position of leader. Already students in large numbers have been sent to Japan to study conditions and to get something of the spirit that has made Japan what it is. Officials have been sent by the government to study and observe, and they have invariably admitted that Japan's experience was of greater value to China than that of the nations of the West.

LAUNCHING OF THE "PENNSYLVANIA" AT PHILADELPHIA, AUGUST 22
The "Maine" in the foreground; new cruiser beyond

The Crisis in British Politics

On September 17, the long-expected crisis in British politics arrived. Like a thunderbolt came the announcement of the resignation of Mr. Joseph Chamberlain, colonial secretary, Mr. Charles T. Ritchie, chancellor of the exchequer, and Lord George Hamilton, secretary of state for India. The circumstances of Mr. Chamberlain's resignation were most dramatic. In a letter to Mr. Balfour, written some days previously but kept secret until the king's acceptance of

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GENERAL HERNANDEZ
The New Venezuelan minister at Washington
Copyright 1903 by Waldon Fawcett

the resignations, he set forth his position on the preferential tariff issue. The nation, said he, is evidently unprepared for any fiscal reform that involves a food tax. Since he, the colonial secretary, cannot surrender a principle which he believes to be required by the interests of the colonies, he deems it best to retire from the cabinet and continue his campaign in an independent position. Mr. Balfour's reply is as curious a document as ever came from a premier's pen. He practically indorses Mr. Chamberlain's policy *in toto,* and then agrees with him that the country will not submit to a food tax. "This branch of fiscal reform is not at present within the limits of practical politics." Therefore the colonial secretary is right in his purpose to retire. The evident absurdity of Balfour and Lansdowne remaining in office while Chamberlain leaves the cabinet strikes an American mind with peculiar force. For, after all, it is not so much Mr. Chamberlain's tariff scheme that has precipitated the crisis as it is the pitiable vacillation of the premier and the disastrous incompetency of his war minister. The storm of popular indignation which followed the publication of the report on the Boer war is undoubtedly one immediate cause of the present chaos. As to the consequences of Chamberlain's resignation, they can scarcely be foreseen as yet. A Liberal victory at the polls is altogether probable as the immediate consequence. Whether at some later time the defeated colonial secretary will recoup his political fortunes and reach the goal of his ambition as a Conservative premier in a protection cabinet depends upon his ability to stem the tide of public opinion throughout the nation, which at present condemns his fiscal policy, his war policy and his policy in regard to public education.

The West Indian Hurricane

During the second week of August, a storm raged with terrific violence over the southern islands of the West Indies, doing great damage in Martinique, Jamaica and Yucatan. It passed by Cuba, struck the gulf coasts, and finally spent its fury in the interior of Mexico and Texas. On the night of August 8, Martinique was desolated by a cyclone lasting five hours.

MARKET-PLACE, ST. THOMAS, JAMAICA

Sailing vessels were driven ashore, cottages blown down and the roofs of larger buildings carried away. By the destruction of several villages five thousand sufferers from last year's catastrophe in St. Pierre are again homeless. Moving westward, the gale swept over the Caribbean Sea and reached Jamaica the night of August 11. Here its fury was severest, the wind blowing one hundred and ten miles an hour. The fatalities were estimated at from seventy to two hundred, and the property loss at $15,000,000. Many plantations were totally destroyed, and the fruit trade will be paralyzed for at least a year. Every banana planta-

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tion in the eastern part of the island was devastated, and considerable harm was done in the western part. The southern side of the island escaped. The West Indian Committee has made appeal for a relief fund for families of the killed and for those who lost all. Trinidad has already forwarded £1,000 to succor those who suffered from the hurricane. It is expected that the government will spend £20,000 in repairs to public buildings, roads and railways. King Edward sent a telegram, expressing his sympathy for the afflicted Jamaicans, who generously contributed to aid the victims of the volcanic disaster in St. Vincent last year. The colonial office has authorized a loan of £50,000 for the relief of the Jamaica sufferers.

An English View of the Alaskan Question

The meeting of the Alaskan Boundary Commission in London marks a new stage in this long standing controversy. Like the seal fisheries, the boundary dispute inevitably causes a constant irritation between the United States and our Canadian and British neighbors, which we would all gladly be rid of as soon as possible. The attitude of this government in limiting the points which it is willing to refer to arbitration is not well received in England. A well known English journalist, noted for his fairness towards America and his understanding of American affairs, recently gave to a representative of THE WORLD TO-DAY the following statement of the British side of the question, apart from the particular questions of evidence:

"In England no one cares one fig about the question of the Alaskan boundary in itself. We only care for it because Canada cares for it. We are very sensitive to the reproach constantly brought against us by the Canadians that we are indifferent to their interests and are always giving them away in their controversies with their powerful neighbors. Therefore when the Canadians protest that their future development on the Pacific slope is imperiled if the American contention is conceded, John Bull feels that he must do his best for his Canadian children. We do not pretend to know the rights and the wrongs of the controversy. We recognize the possibility that Canada may be wrong. But we say, why not refer the whole matter to arbitration? No power can be an impartial judge in a matter that concerns its own interests. Why should this not be done? We are now told that the American government, backed by the American nations, would never, could never, ought never, to consent to send to arbitration so vital a question as this of hauling down the flag over territory claimed as American. That is all very well but the American government only a few years ago was profoundly unaware of the tremendous importance of this question. It was quite willing to send it to arbitration provided the umpire was a native of the western hemisphere. England most mistakenly objected to confine the choice of arbitrators to Spanish-Americans and the thing fell through. But when American statesmen were willing to send it to arbitration half a dozen years ago, if the arbitrator was a "Greaser," why should we accept to-day the new theory that the question is one on which it is impossible to arbitrate?

Englishmen Reluctant to Humiliate Canada

"We think," said this English journalist, "that it is rather unreasonable on the part of the Americans to take this high ground, and we feel this all the more keenly because you know perfectly well that we are under no circumstances prepared to go to war about it. You are putting us in the position of having to eat dirt at the cost of the Canadians, whereas we think it would have been more friendly if you had helped us to save our face by referring the question to arbitration. It may be said that the present commission offers us a method of saving our face. But we feel that this commission is very little better than a fraud upon the people. It was described in the king's speech as an arbitral commission, whereas it is avowedly nothing of the kind. It is a committee of six, three of whom are appointed because they are pledged under no circumstances to abandon one jot or tittle of the American claim. The other three are appointed with open minds in the hope that one of them may say ditto to the American trio. It is reported in London, possibly without any solid foun-

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dation, that if England does not instruct one of her three commissioners to give away the Canadian case, President Roosevelt intends, on November 2, to appeal to Congress for means whereby to take forcible possession of all the territory in dispute. If so, the feeling on this side of the Atlantic, that we have been dealt with very harshly, will be very widespread and very deep. It seems to the best friends of the United States in England a thousand pities that, on the very first occasion since the Hague conference assembled on which a serious difference of opinion has arisen between the United States and Great Britain, the government of the United States should have taken so decided and uncompromising an attitude of opposition to arbitration."

Alaskan Boundary Dispute

At the opening session of the Alaskan Boundary Commission, held in the conference-room of the British Foreign Office in London, September 3, it was tentatively agreed that the hearings should close by October 15. The members representing Great Britain are Lord Chief Justice Alverstone, who was chosen chairman of the commission; Sir Louis Jette, lieutenant-governor of the province of Quebec, and A. B. Aylesworth. The American commissioners are Secretary Root, of the War Department, and Senators Lodge, of Massachusetts, and Turner, of Washington. John W. Foster, secretary of state in President Harrison's cabinet; Sir Robert Finlay, British attorney-general, and Clifford Sifton, Canadian minister of the interior, are among the able men presenting the arguments. As is generally known, Great Britain seeks to overthrow the long-established principle that by the treaty of 1825 between that nation and Russia the boundary of the southern part of Alaska, beginning at Portland canal and extending to the one hundred and forty-first meridian of longitude west from Greenwich, is fixed at ten marine leagues from salt water, paralleling the sinuosities of that coast. Since Russia and, later, the United States by purchase from that nation, have held by virtue of a formal treaty with Great Britain undisputed possession of this strip for about three-quarters of a century, it seems incredible that any action will be taken by the commission injurious to the American title to the unbroken stretch of coast from Portland Canal northward.

Industry and Commerce

The British Commercial Congress

The British Commercial Congress, the congress of the Chambers of Commerce of the empire, met during the first week of September for the first time outside of the city of London. It came to Montreal, as the first commercial city of the first British colony; and came at a time when British politics are being disturbed by a question of Canadian origin—the inter-imperial preferential tariff proposals. Canada's delegation was naturally the largest. The British delegation was large and representative. In the chair was Lord Brassey, a type of the London business man, cautious, informed, well-rooted in free trade, but not in any panic-born hostility to an inquiry into the fiscal conditions of the empire. Beside him always sat Mr. Kenric B. Murray, secretary at once of the congress and of the London Chamber of Commerce. Another striking figure was Mr. S. B. Boulton, a veteran of "the City," a little alarmed by American and German competition, and looking, with an Englishman's first instinct, for a weapon with which to hit back. Beside him on the platform sat usually Sir William Holland, the man from Manchester, the free trade champion, a tall, bluff, powerful-looking man. Near him sat Mr. Ebenezer Parks, M.P., of Birmingham, a friend of Chamberlain, a small, shrewd-faced man; while Mr. Joseph Walton, M.P., was a vivacious and not very conciliatory fighter on the other side. They were experts in the questions discussed, and were able to say from detailed knowledge obtained at first hand precisely what effect this or that policy would have upon their particular industry. The congress was opened with an address by Lord Strathcona, who is now the Canadian representative in London, and has secured for himself, by his generous use of his great wealth and his

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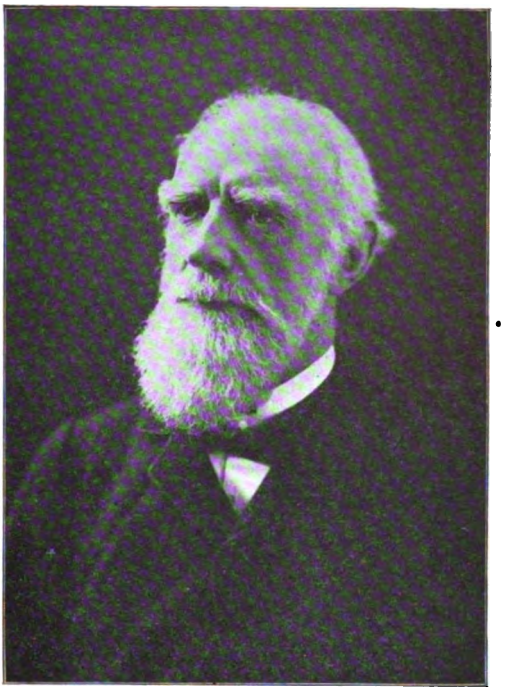
KENRIC MURRAY
Secretary of the British Commercial Congress at Montreal



LORD STRATHCONA
One of the leading speakers at the British Commercial Congress

interest in all sorts of works of charity and patriotism, a unique place in the British world. He is what we call on this continent an exceedingly old man—being in the hoary eighties—but he is still in vigorous health, erect with his strong Scotch face and its crown of white hair, active as many a younger man, and shrewdly concerned in the politics of British-Canadian relations. His address was optimistic on the subject uppermost in the minds of the congress—the possibility of arranging a set of preferential tariffs. Lord Brassey followed with a formal address as chairman, and a short review of business conditions in England from the view-point of the confirmed free trader.

British Manufacturers and the Preferential Tariff

It became clear, during the sessions of the congress, among what classes of the British manufacturers Chamberlainism is making headway. These classes are such as manufacture chiefly for the British market. Protection for that market would rid them of fierce competition in the home field. This would secure to them higher prices and a steady sale—greater advantages, they think, than untaxed food for their workmen. On the other hand, the manufacturers whose chief markets are outside of the British Islands fear a food tax as they do the very devil, and cannot find any compensation in protection on their finished product. The colonial markets figured very little in the speeches of the pro-Chamberlainites. Had they been political and not business talks, the cry of colonial empire would have, doubtless, been more vocal; but the hard-headed business man did not apparently expect to get any very valuable preference in the markets of the colonies. This was quite plain when the British delegates took without a murmur the emphatic declaration of the representative of the Canadian manufacturers that his associates would stoutly oppose any further reduction of the tariff on British goods. They were not troubled about the colonial markets very deeply. They were thinking rather of the home market and the possibility of protecting it. Of course, when the politicians come to discuss this same

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LORD BRASSEY
President of the British Commercial Congress at Montreal

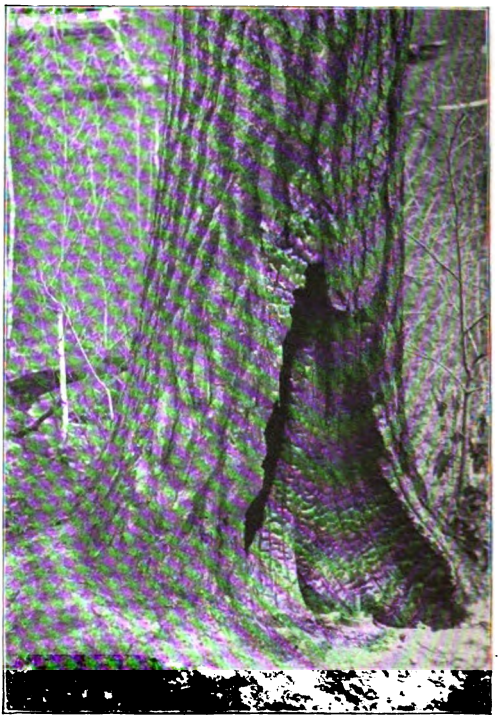
point there will be much more in the line of imperial fireworks; but this was a business and not a political congress. It may just be mentioned in passing that Sir Wilfrid Laurier, speaking at the banquet, intimated to the Canadian manufacturers that they must expect to give Britain a further preference if they hope to gain a preference in the British market.

Canada Secures a Compromise

As for the Canadian delegation, it was practically unanimous for a system of preferential tariffs. There are, indeed, hardly two opinions on this subject in Canada. The Canadian delegation was inclined, too, to do something more than at present toward the defence of the empire. Canada is enthusiastically imperial, in the sense that it wishes to get into even closer relationships with the British Empire; and the chief political notes at the congress came from the Canadian delegates. The outcome of the trade discussion was a double compromise. Before the discussion began, a part of the British delegation compromised with the Canadians on a resolution doing little more than call for an official inquiry. But the Manchester wing would not accept even this; and subsequently secured, through the diplomatic intervention of Lord Strathcona, a further compromise which the British press are still regarding as a cryptogram. The fact of the matter is that the congress reached no conclusion at all; but had a discussion which cleared the air not a little. The politicians will not gain much comfort out of it, but the business men know more of each other's positions.

Convention of the National Forestry Association

It was to be expected that the convention of the National Forestry Association, held in Minneapolis, August 25 and 26, should be the scene of some interesting passages at arms. A national association which by its very nature comes into direct opposition to the present methods of the great lumber industries of the country, could not fail to provoke earnest discussions at its sessions; especially when its meetings are



A MAGNIFICENT PINE TO WHICH A TORCH HAS BEEN APPLIED

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SUMMIT OF MOUNTAIN IRON

Showing white pine, birch, etc., growing on non-agricultural land; also showing a piece of road

held, as in the present instance, in a city of large lumber interests and in a state in which a national forest reserve has just been created after years of legislative debate. The aim of the association, which has often been misapprehended, was clearly set forth in the address of Secretary of Agriculture James Wilson, who said in substance: It would be unbecoming in us to find fault with the lumberman. From the time of the earliest settlement of this country he has provided us with lumber wherewith we have built our homes. He has aided in the rapid development of our cities; he has done the work we wanted him to do. The only trouble is that we have allowed him to go on too long. We have reveled in the prodigality of our forests and now we have awakened too late to the fact that we have wasted our resources and have not provided for the future. The facts before us prove that the scarcity of timber will be felt in fifteen years, and in thirty or forty years the scarcity will be serious. These are actual conditions, and the Department of Agriculture is seriously alarmed about them. The work of the Forestry Association must be to arouse the people of the country to a realization of the condition which confronts them, to secure legislation which shall provide for refor-

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CLEARING AT HIBBING, MINN.
Showing where white pine has been cleared from non-agricultural land nothing being done to promote new growth

estration, and which shall regulate the administration of the forest lands now remaining. The Department of Agriculture is educating men in scientific forestry, and it is studying and experimenting upon the problem of preserving wood, so that a cottonwood pole can be made to last. The present problem is how to do this cheaply. That it can be done has already been proved.

The Economics of Forestry

General C. C. Andrews, chief fire warden of Minnesota, made the address of welcome. In the course of his remarks he said: The significance of forestry is that it utilizes waste land, land that is too hilly, too rocky or too sandy for agriculture. If a forest of pine were now started on such land it would in eighty years reach merchantable size. By the time this forest had matured our population would be 287,000,000, showing the increased demand for forest products at that time. General Andrews attacked the stone and timber law as devised for the benefit of speculators, and deplored the amount of timber which is constantly being fraudulently secured under the homestead law. In closing, he said that sixty thousand acres of mostly mountainous lands have been established as forest reserves in the past twelve years. The paper by Herman H. Chapman, of Grand Rapids, Minn., on "The Effect of the Chippewa Forest Reserve on the Locality" was of special interest. Mr. Chapman said that jack pine and Norway pine grow in pure sands only, on sandy land with a sandy subsoil, unfit for agriculture. This statement was called in question by some of the lumbermen present, but seemed to be well sustained by Mr. Chapman's citations from the experience of farmers who had attempted to cultivate such soil in Michigan and Wisconsin.

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Eugene L. Bruce, lumberman of the Bureau of Forestry, Washington, D. C., spoke of the work and policy of the Forestry Bureau on the Minnesota Reserve, and was followed by two of Minnesota's leading lumbermen, B. F. Nelson and T. B. Walker, who spoke respectively upon "A Lumberman's Idea of Reforestration" and "Our Past and Future Forest Policy." Other interesting papers were given by W. B. Douglas, attorney-general, Minnesota; Dr. C. Alvin Schenck, forester of the Vanderbilt estate, North Carolina, who spoke of the "Financial Results at Biltmore"; Edwin A. Wildey, Michigan Forestry Commission; Professor S. B. Green, School of Agriculture, Minnesota; Dr. Filibert Roth, College of Forestry, Ann Arbor, Mich.; Edward A. Bowers, New Haven, Conn., and Professor B. E. Fernow, of Cornell University. The last named speaker referred to the collapse of the college of forestry at Cornell as an example of the absence of a really serious and honest forest policy even in the state of New York, and summed up his conclusions in the statement: The need of the hour is the realization by legislatures and officials of the immediate seriousness of the situation, the establishment of well organized forestry bureaus in each state conducted by professional foresters, and above all, an efficient fire police.

Lawyers and the Trusts

A report on trusts, made to the American Bar Association at its meeting in Hot Springs, Va., August 27, by its committee on commercial law, recommends the adoption by the national government of severe measures of regulation and restriction aimed at industrial combinations. Unless such measures are employed the members of the committee see in prospect the realization of the Socialists' dream within the next ten years. By that time, it thinks, all the industries of the land may have been combined into one corporation, so that labor can find but one possible employer and the purchaser of wares but one possible seller. We do not have so far to go from where we are at present to reach that condition,

"SLASHINGS" SHOWING PRESENT LUMBERING METHODS
The cause of forest fires

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they say, as we have progressed already in its direction. If they are right at least it seems reasonably clear that neither J. Pierpont Morgan nor any other great demonstrator of socialistic principles along corporation lines could bring about such a condition of affairs without having speedily to abdicate in favor of state

GOVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE, WASHINGTON

authority. The monopolist is acting as the advance agent of socialism when he kills competition and establishes oppressive conditions by his monopoly. When, therefore, the committee urges that the growth of great industrial combines be prevented either by taxing them to death, by compelling them to cheapen their service in a ruinous manner, or by putting government production in direct competition with theirs, it seeks, as do all other advocates of trust regulation, to prevent the ultimate triumph of socialism. Yet one of its suggested remedies is itself the remedy of the socialists, since the entrance of the state into the industrial field as a producer would be a mere experimental plunge preparatory to the state's monopolizing production. Naturally this extraordinary report led to a warm debate in the Bar Association meeting, the outcome of which was that the committee was set at work to find a remedy for illegal combines that are injurious to commercial intercourse. While trusts are mainly creations of lawyers they tend to limit the lawyers' field of activity. That certain forms of litigation, such as suits resulting from infringement of patents, have decreased in a marked degree since the era of trusts set in, is only natural. It is absurd to think that the trusts can oppress the people very long without a remedy being found and applied. That remedy, when found, will be neither confiscation nor state production. Furthermore, it will discriminate, as the Bar Association committee's report does not, between trusts that share with the public the benefits of their economies and those which use their power to extort unfair gains.

Government Printing Office Quiet

The case of Foreman Miller, reinstated in his position in the bindery of the Government Printing office by President Roosevelt, awaits the decision of Commissioner Garfield, to whom were referred the charges filed against Miller by the unions. Meanwhile the only new development in the labor situation in the office was the order issued requiring all employees to take the oath to support the government, required of government employees in most of the departments. This step would have excited little attention had it not been taken just at this time, when the inference is obvious that the government, or rather the president, intends to settle once for all the issue between government rules and union rules.

Labor Day

Labor Day is more generally observed each year as a public holiday. The demonstrations by labor unions this year were quite up to the average of previous years except in the case of New York City. There the parade was led by Parks, the walking delegate who had been released from Sing Sing by a curious legal device which exists in New York, known as a "certificate of reasonable doubt," which entitles him to a new trial after having been once convicted and sentenced. As a consequence of the presence of this obnoxious and repudiated leader at the head of the procession, only about ten thousand men paraded instead of the seventy or eighty thousand commonly in line. Later in the week Parks and the entire local which supported him in his fight with the International Association of Bridge and Structural Iron Workers were expelled by the association.

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The Nation

Indian Territory Affairs

During the past ten years the Commission to the Five Civilized Tribes, commonly called the Dawes Commission, has been engaged in the formidable task of breaking up the tribal relations of the Choctaws, Chickasaws, Creeks, Cherokees and Seminoles, allotting their lands in severalty and otherwise preparing to make of them self-sustaining citizens of the United States. Now that the work is nearly completed painful charges are made as to methods adopted by some influential federal officials to secure profits out of Indian lands while exercising authority as representatives of the national government. An investigation of these methods is being carried on by Secretary Hitchcock, of the Interior Department. While charges of fraud against the federal officials may be unjust, at least it is clear that the action of some of their number in associating themselves prominently with land and development companies was in a high degree injudicious. Chairman Tams Bixby, of the Dawes Commission, formerly a congressman from Minnesota, together with his associates, Clifton R. Breckenridge, of Arkansas; Thomas B. Needles, of Illinois, and ex-Governor W. E. Stanley, of Kansas, as well as officers of the federal courts of the territory and other government officers, are reported to be interested to a greater or less extent in companies which deal in Indian lands. Since the struggle has been from the first to protect the Indians from spoliation, it is a shock to find their protectors interested in making money by bargaining indirectly for the Indians' property. It is only fair to the federal officers to say that each of those who are accused has demanded a careful inquiry into his conduct. Secretary Hitchcock's investigations, during his visit to Indian Territory last May, disclosed that many sales of Indian lands had been made under conditions that suggested fraud. Consequently he canceled four hundred and twenty-three sales and returned to purchasers deposits of money to the amount of $369,000. Though these sales were made by authority of the Dawes Commission the unreasonably low prices suggested the existence of a well-organized conspiracy to prevent competitive bidding. Subsequent sales of the same tracts at much higher prices indicate that the secretary's suspicions were well founded. Since that time rigid regulations governing sales of Indian lands have been adopted and these should secure fair prices in all cases. Thus far the Creeks alone are permitted to sell their lands, the five years of individual possession required by law before sales can be made, not having elapsed for the other tribes. Fraudulent leases have been resorted to, however, for the injury of Indian landowners. Many of these leases contain contracts for the sale of the leased lands at a future time at ridiculously low prices, though the owners may have had no thought of agreeing to sell their property when signing the documents.

Red Men's Riches and Wrongs

When the late Henry L. Dawes, formerly United States senator from Massachusetts, to whose intelligent interest in the affairs of the five civilized tribes was due the creation of the Dawes Commission, began with his associate commissioners to negotiate with the Indians treaties arranging for the extinction of their tribal governments serious opposition was encountered. Control of the governments had passed into the hands of a few half breeds and "squaw men," the latter being whites who had been admitted into tribal membership because they possessed Indian wives. These shrewd manipulators of tribal affairs had secured control of the Indians' lands and used them to their own advantage, either directly through cultivation or grazing or through leases made to cattlemen, oil and mining companies and others. Naturally they threw their influence strongly against the plan to end their rule of the tribes. In its first report the Dawes Commission said: "Almost everything of tribal property, in which every citizen Indian has of right an equal share, has, if of any value, been appropriated to the use and gain of the few, while the real full-blood has been left destitute and crowded out upon the mountains and unproductive land, to take care of himself as best he can." This grievous

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PHILIP C. GARRETT
President of the Indian Rights Association

wrong, together with the fact that the territory, having become a refuge for fugitives from justice, swarmed with desperadoes, gave the federal government its excuse for insisting that the Indian should give up his tribal relations and become a citizen of the United States. The twenty million acres included in the reservations consisted almost entirely of excellent farm land or valuable mineral land. To divide a part of it into convenient holdings among the seventy thousand Indians and fifteen thousand negroes affiliated with them, sell the rest at fair prices and administer the funds thus obtained for the original owners of the land, was to bestow wealth upon every man, woman and child of the five tribes. By continual pressure the Indians were induced to surrender their governments and accept the allotments made by the Dawes Commission. Every Choctaw and Chickasaw, including all infants born up to January 1, 1899, received two hundred and forty acres, every Creek one hundred and sixty acres, every Cherokee eighty acres and every Seminole forty acres. Thus each family of three to six persons has come into possession of a considerable acreage of valuable farm land. Since cultivation of the soil is not to the taste of the full-blood the prospect that the land would be sold speedily or at best leased to white tenants was excellent from the first.

A Nation's Spendthrift Wards

It has cost the United States more than $1,000,000 to prepare the land allotments for the Indians. Now they are both wealthy and improvident. The ten years' work of dividing up the property was essentially a work of philanthropy. Yet it has been reproachfully said that the Dawes Commission throughout these years has systematically furnished a "snug harbor for shipwrecked politicians." Whether or not there was justification for this sneer must be decided by the results of the commission's work when they shall come to be fully known. If the authorities at Washington have been interested in providing places for needy politicians rather than in choosing the best men available for the important task of preparing the Indians for citizenship and the responsibility of caring for their property, they have committed a grievous wrong. To find that the guardians of many thousands of wealthy incompetents now emerging from tribal conditions are seeking a share of the profits accruing from bargains in lands leased or purchased from their wards is distressing at best. It is gratifying to know that the secretary of the interior is earnestly striving to cure existing abuses. There are large tribal funds to be administered in Indian Territory and Oklahoma and intimations that painful disclosures are to be made in regard to certain of these trusts increase the disquiet of the public. One must think that here is an exceptional opportunity for the government to show that it will not tolerate dishonorable or even questionable practices by officials exercising its delegated authority. Secretary Hitchcock unfortunately has chosen to censure President Garrett and General Agent Brosius, of the Indian Rights Association, for discourtesy in giving publicity to reports of "grave irregularities" affecting federal officers in Indian Territory. The important question being, however, the truth or falsity of these reports, all matters of etiquette may be waived with benefit while the investigation is

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pending. The appointment of Mr. Charles J. Bonaparte, of Baltimore, to investigate the whole subject is a most appropriate choice. Mr. Bonaparte is a Democratic lawyer of high standing and well known as a reformer.

Trans-Mississippi Congress

The fourteenth annual meeting of the Trans-Mississippi Congress was held in Seattle, August 18-21. Delegates were present from every state and territory west of the Mississippi River. The program included the following addresses, which show the character of the enterprises that the members have promoted and the problems that they are studying: "The Port of Galveston, Child of the Trans-Mississippi Commercial Congress," by Hon. Edward F. Harris, of Texas: "Commercial Reciprocity with Canada," by Herbert Strain, Great Falls, Mont.; "The St. Louis Fair and Its Relations to Trans-Mississippi Trade," by Hon. John Barrett, minister to Argentina; "Commercial Importance of Good Public Roads," by Hon. R. W. Richardson, secretary of the National Good Roads Association; "The Levee System of the Lower Mississippi River," by Hon. Thomas F. Cunningham, New Orleans; "Utilization of the Grazing Land of the United States," by Hon. W. W. Woodbridge, of North Dakota; "American Scenery and its Influence upon Travel," by E. C. McCormick, of the Southern Pacific Railway Company. Irrigation was the topic of several speakers. Hon. George H. Maxwell, chairman of the national irrigation executive board; Hon. F. H. Newell, department of geological survey; Hon. C. B. Boothe, chairman of the executive council of the National Irrigation Association, and others. The advisability of merging the congress with the National Irrigation Congress was considered. The prominent irrigation workers are members of the Trans-Mississippi Congress. One afternoon was set apart to speeches on Alaska, its resources, laws, and government. The Alaska delegates, seventeen to one, voted for a resolution asking Congress to give Alaska a territorial form of government. Governor Brady opposed the resolution. At the last session of the congress numerous resolutions were passed relating to the improvement of harbors, rivers, roads, lighthouses, and other public works. They recommended, in brief, that Congress should pass laws to build up the American merchant marine, also the establishment of international salmon hatcheries by the governments of the United States and British Columbia. They commended the work done by the United States Geological Survey, and asked that further appropriations be made for surveys in the interest of the mining industry. The project of a Puget Sound ship canal was approved by the congress, and the construction of an isthmian canal was recommended. The congress indorsed the request for an appropriation of $1,000,000 by the government in aid of the Lewis and Clark Exposition. It recommended territorial government for Alaska and statehood for Oklahoma and Indian Territory. It advised the repeal of the Desert Land Act and the commutation clause of the Homestead Act.

Ohio's Battle of Giants

In Ohio those two political giants and picturesque personalities—Tom Johnson and Mark Hanna—are struggling for mastery. Mr. Hanna—president maker, chairman of the Republican national committee and United States senator—since the campaign of 1896, which he managed in the interest of McKinley, has been the dominant power in the Republican party of Ohio and a figure of commanding importance in the nation. He is fighting now for reëlection as United States senator and for the renewed recognition of his position of power and prominence in state and national politics. Johnson comes before the country as the foremost exponent and champion of radical Democracy—the inheritor of the political mantle of Bryan. Not that Johnson is a believer in the free silver policy. He and Bryan have always disagreed on that point. But in other respects Johnson is more radical than the Nebraskan, and appears to be the choice of the latter as the future leader of the radical wing of the Democratic party. Ohio's contest of this year, therefore, is fraught with much political significance for the entire country, and especially for the Democratic party. Mr. Johnson, like Senator Hanna, is a mil-

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lionaire. He boasts that he has made his wealth in industries buttressed on the special privileges which he is now fighting. As an iron manufacturer he profited from the tariff policy of Mr. Hanna and his associates. As a member of congress a decade ago he fought the protection policy, but declared that as an individual he proposed to take advantage of the privileges if offered by the government. He has also been a very successful manager of street railway properties. A few years ago Mr. Johnson closed up his business affairs and decided to give the remainder of his life to public questions. Shortly afterward he was nominated for mayor of Cleveland on the Democratic ticket, and was elected over the Republican nominee supported by Senator Hanna. In the city of Cleveland, formerly Republican, Johnson has completely routed Senator Hanna and is now in control. Two years ago the entire delegation from Cuyahoga County (Cleveland) to the state legislature was democratic and friendly to Johnson. Last spring Johnson was reëlected mayor by a large majority. But in the state at large Hanna's prestige and power thus far have remained unbroken. The supreme and decisive test is to come at the election of November next.

Colombia and the Canal

On September 22 the time expires for the exchange of ratifications of the Panama canal treaty. Hope at Washington that the Colombian Congress would reconsider its rejection of the treaty has been practically extinguished for several weeks. Still, the extreme importance of the measure to the people of Colombia and the vagueness of the reports coming from the secret sessions of the legislators at Bogota give an opportunity up to the very last for the unexpected to happen in the shape of favorable action on the treaty. There were indications late in September that an effort would be made to pass a law specifically authorizing President Marroquin to negotiate a new treaty, leasing to the United States the Panama canal strip upon specified terms that would greatly increase the profits to Colombia over those set forth in the rejected treaty. A committee appointed to draft such a measure is understood to have agreed that the initial payments to Colombia should be $20,000,000 from the United States and $10,000,000 from the French Canal Company, that the annual rental should be increased from that fixed at Washington, and that an advance of twenty-five per cent in the rental should come at the end of each hundred years. No such terms would be accepted by the United States, which in the Hay-Herran treaty agrees to a payment of $10,000,000 when the lease is executed and an annual rental of $250,000 after the construction period has passed. The evident disposition at Bogota to stiffen the terms to the United States and to take a share of the money paid to the French Canal Company tends to weaken the claim that patriotic feeling on the part of the Colombian legislators caused the defeat of the Hay-Herran treaty. They were represented in the earlier dispatches to have recoiled at the suggestion that Colombia surrender a strip of its territory to foreign control. Granting the canal strip, however, seems to be rather a question of money than of patriotism. Since the government party has a safe majority in Congress and President Marroquin assented to the treaty before it was signed at Washington by the Colombian *chargé d'affaires,* it is difficult to avoid the conviction that the government has adopted strange methods to drive the best bargain possible with the United States. President Roosevelt, being anxious to secure the Panama route in preference to any other, presumably will delay as long as possible before opening negotiations with Nicaragua and Costa Rica, looking to the ceding by those nations of rights along the Nicaragua route. The feeling that Colombia will grant the Panama canal strip on the terms set forth in the Hay-Herran treaty as soon as it has convinced itself that no better terms are to be wrung from the United States is still strong in this country. In any event, a little delay at this time should harm nobody.

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Reactionary Movements in the South: In Mississippi

It was inevitable that the movement looking towards the restriction of negro suffrage in the South should somewhere extend into genuine reaction. Even in North Carolina a serious attempt was made, during the past winter, to limit the appropriation for negro schools to a sum equal to that derived from the taxes on property owned by negroes. The determined stand made by Governor Aycock made such action impossible. In Mississippi, however, the reactionary party seems to have scored a decided victory in the Democratic primaries, where Vardaman was nominated by a majority of something like four thousand votes over his opponent, Judge Critz. The issue was distinctly drawn on the negro question. It is even claimed that Judge Critz was defeated by the report that President Roosevelt, whose hospitality to Booker Washington has never been forgiven in the South, favored his nomination. The success of the reactionary tendencies in Mississippi is seen also in the election of Senator Money over Governor Longino to the United States Senate. The election of Mr. Vardaman is a foregone conclusion, and with it the anti-negro movement will evidently be given free scope. During his administration the school funds will doubtless be divided proportionately to the taxes paid by the two races and the education of the negro will be sadly checked.

In Georgia

Another reactionary movement, but in this case one that can be but an eddy in the flood of advance, is to be seen in Georgia, where a nondescript law against fathers allowing their children to work for wages has been substituted for a bill regulating child labor. Practically without exception the press, notably the religious press, of the South has stood for the abolition of child labor. To see a sensible bill replaced by one whose provisions are clearly impracticable is not only discouraging to the friends of the new South, but it evinces only too clearly the power of the Georgia lobby. It is hardly to be expected that the South, in entering upon an industrial era, should take full advantage of the sad lessons taught the North by experience. But this much is inevitable: with the forces of philanthropy and organized labor united against them the millowners of Georgia can not long prevent legislation restricting the employment of children in their mills. The recent exposure of the degeneration of the middle classes of England should make Georgian legislators halt in their opposition to legitimate reform. The legislature of Illinois, when confronted with the statement of the glass-bottle manufacturers that "glass bottles can not be made and sold on the market without child labor" promptly chose the preservation of the child instead of the maintenance of low-priced bottles. We trust to see the Georgia legislature presently attain a similar independence.

Consular Service Reform

In his various diplomatic service appointments, President Roosevelt has given proof of his desire to select for the nation's representatives abroad competent men who shall attain by judicious promotion rather than by sudden leaps high positions at foreign courts. Since the science of diplomacy calls for something more than ability to make a showing in partisan politics, the president's efforts to develop for the nation's benefit a body of skilled diplomatists have met with general approval. The recent announcement that in the same manner carefully considered promotions in the consular service are mainly to be relied upon to fill the important positions is equally gratifying. The extraordinary material which in the past has been shoveled into the consular service as a result of political influence invoked in its behalf has made of the service as a result of political influence bad and indifferent. In making appointments in past years, it has seemed to be taken for granted that any sort of person would do for a United States consul. Men who have failed in law and medicine, broken-down business men, dipsomaniacs, chronic invalids—such appointments were common enough. The president now seeks to bring about a reform of this sort. When every American consul shall be put squarely on his merits, without the slightest regard for anything else, the results can not fail to be beneficial to the nation's interests.

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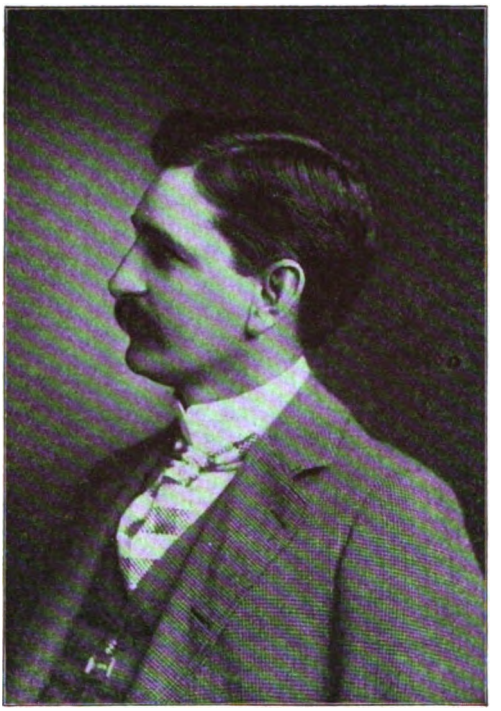

JUDGE M. W. THOMPSON
Who sentenced Danville rioters to the penitentiary.

Danville Rioters Receive Penitentiary Sentences

In the Circuit Court at Danville, Ill., on September 8, Judge M. W. Thompson overruled the motions for new trials of the twelve defendants convicted July 25 in connection with the attack on the Danville jail. He then sentenced eleven of these persons, ten men and a woman, to the Chester Penitentiary on indeterminate sentences, and sentenced a minor to the Pontiac Reformatory. This noteworthy event should be set down to the credit of Danville as contrasted with the disgrace of the riot and lynching; more particularly to the credit of Judge Thompson himself. In pronouncing sentence, Judge Thompson said:

"There is no excuse in this country for mob rule. If the laws are insufficient or inadequate, the people can and should change them through the legislature. If the fault is with the courts in not executing the laws, the fault is with the people, and the remedy is through the ballot box. But do not forget that the courts are powerless to act, except upon indictment by a grand jury, because no one can be tried for crime in this country until he is indicted.

"You attempted to take the law into your own hands, and denied the prisoners confined in the jail the right to the trial guaranteed them by the law. When you did that you committed a grave crime, and you may thank God that you are not here on the charge of murder, instead of an attempt to murder, and that I am not sentencing you to be hanged instead of to the penitentiary; for, as sure as you live, had you gained entrance to the jail that night, you would have committed murder, not once, but probably a dozen times, and, had not the right man been sheriff, you would have succeeded.

"The plea that some of you were not accountable is no excuse. What can it matter to me whether I am to be killed by a drunken or a sober man; and, if intoxication should excuse you, then a drink of liquor would be a license to murder.

"That such offenses have not met with adequate punishment in the past may have emboldened you in this, but that only proves that our neglect to enforce the law encourages its violation.

"I hope that the verdict of the jury in this case may be a wholesome lesson to every one who may feel himself inclined to take the law into his own hands."

SHERIFF WHITLOCK

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Sports

English Victories in Golf and Tennis

With the close of the contest for the national amateur gold championship on the links of the Nassau Country Club, Walter J. Travis was returned a three-time champion. He first won the honor in 1900, when he defeated Findlay Douglas, at Garden City. The year after he disposed of Walter Egan in the finals, and on September 5 he administered a crushing defeat to Eben M. Byers, of Pittsburg. The contest brought out its usual number of surprises. Chief among these were the successive defeats of the western players, including the national champion, Louis N. James. Then came the defeat of western champion Walter Egan and his cousin Chandler. Bruce Smith reached the semi-finals only to be beaten by Byers, who in turn went down before the former champion. The victory of the latter stamps him as a phenomenal player. His march to the finals was much like his playing, steady and invincible. He did not show the individual brilliancy of some other players, but his machine-like precision mowed down all opposition. In contrast to other distinguished foreign sportsmen in this country this summer were the results of the English golfing team who have just completed a tour of the American links. Nothing could be mustered this side of the Atlantic which could even give the visitors an even battle, and the Oxford-Cambridge teams returned home loaded with honors. In tennis also our English cousins have shown their superiority. Not only did the English pair, H. L. and R. H. Doherty, capture the doubles championship at Newport from Kreigh Collins and L. H. Waidner, but H. L. Doherty, by defeating the American champion, W. A. Larned, won that most treasured honor of the courts, the championship in singles. The score 6-0, 6-3, 10-8, bears evidence to the winner's phenomenal game. S. H. Mahoney, one of the English trio, proved less formidable than either of the Doherty brothers, and was defeated early in the tournament. Whether or not an American team will be selected to go to England in 1904 is still undecided.

H. L. DOHERTY
International Tennis Champion

WALTER J. TRAVIS
National Golf Champion

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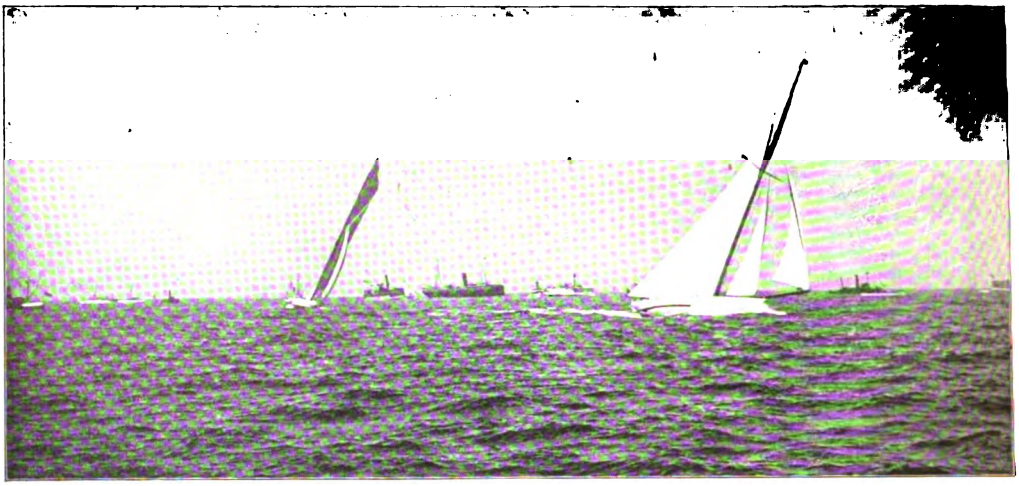
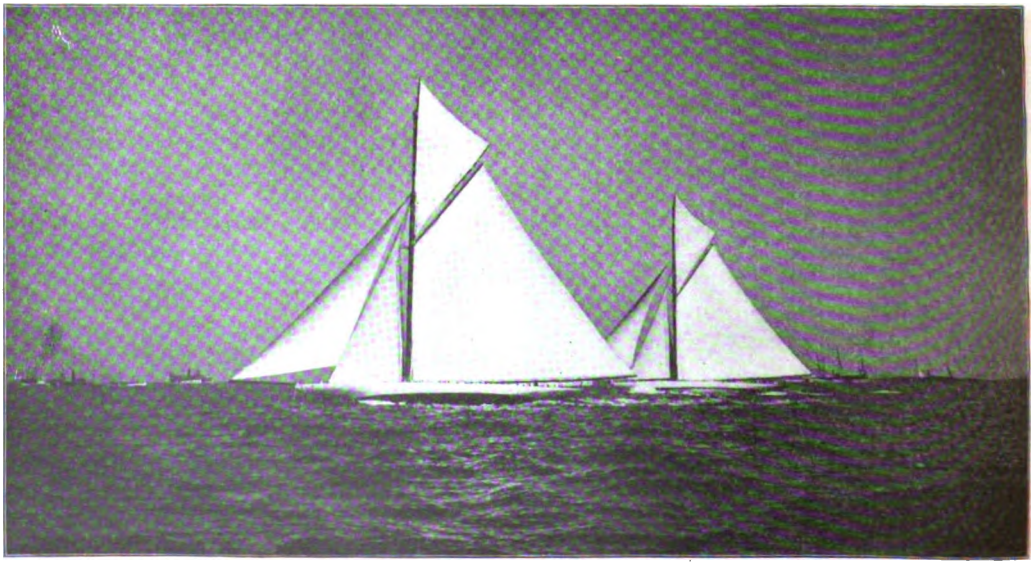


THE START OF THE FIRST RACE

The Victory of the Reliance

The thirteenth consecutive effort of English yachtsmen to "lift" America's cup ended in a most crushing defeat, on September 3, when Sir Thomas Lipton's "Shamrock III" finished three miles behind the "Reliance" in the last and deciding race of the international cup series. Five times neither boat had finished within the time limits. Three times the "Reliance" led by such a margin as to recall the first race in 1851, when, according to the English officer who carried the report to Queen Victoria, "there is no second, your majesty." It has been generally conceded that the value in general of the cup races is all but nothing. The type of the ninety-foot racing machines is unlike anything that floats. It is true the yachts contain all the rudimentary outlines of seagoing craft, but there the similarity ends. After the races are over they are still nothing but racing machines and critics point out that the nautical world has been in no sense a gainer. The only future for even the victorious is the junk heap. No one has recognized this more than the owner of the challenger. Sir Thomas is nothing if not practical.



RELIANCE PASSING SHAMROCK IN SECOND RACE

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After spending a sum estimated at $2,500,000 the Irish knight has come to the conclusion that the races have left no legacy by which posterity will be benefited. To him the ninety-foot racer of to-day has become a "toy boat" in earnest, and, although not wishing to criticize any one openly, he has hinted that perhaps it would be better could the races redound to the credit of the shipbuilding world in general, instead of to some particular genius who can design a racer pure and simple. No particular change has been advocated, although a number of suggestions have been made.

Baseball

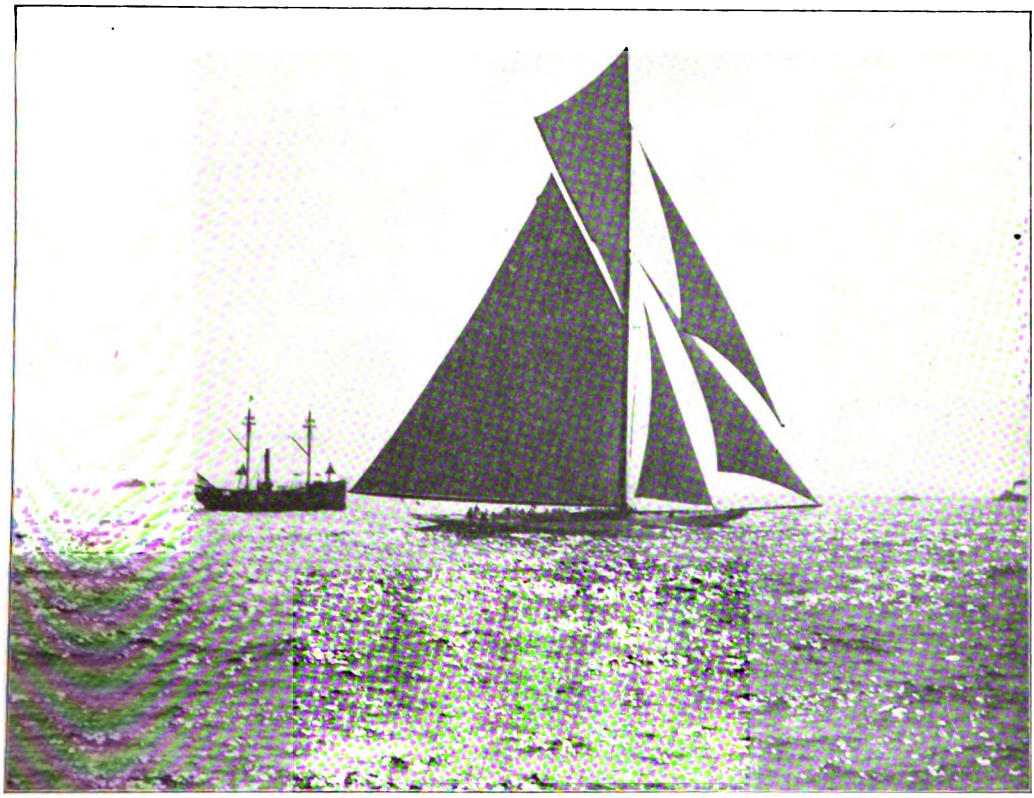
The situation among the professional clubs has been somewhat clarified by the agreement reached on September 10 between the major and minor leagues. Hereafter all matters in dispute between the various clubs will be referred to a committee of three representatives of the National and American leagues. It is believed that the bitter war waged between the two leagues will now cease. The following is the standing of the various clubs on September 15, 1903:

AMERICAN LEAGUE.

	W.	L.	Pct.
Boston	82	43	.656
Cleveland	72	56	.562
Philadelphia	66	57	.537
New York	62	58	.517
Detroit	61	62	.496
St. Louis	60	65	.480
Chicago	56	69	.448
Washington	38	87	.304

NATIONAL LEAGUE.

	W.	L.	Pct.
Pittsburg	86	43	.667
New York	79	51	.608
Chicago	75	52	.590
Cincinnati	68	57	.544
Brooklyn	63	63	.500
Boston	53	75	.414
Philadelphia	41	79	.342
St. Louis	42	87	.325



RELIANCE FINISHING SECOND RACE

AMERICAN ASS'N.

	W.	L.	Pct.
St. Paul	84	41	.672
Louisville	82	52	.612
Milwaukee	71	54	.568
Indianapolis	74	63	.540
Kansas City	63	65	.492
Columbus	58	79	.424
Minneapolis	47	82	.364
Toledo	46	89	.340

WESTERN LEAGUE.

	W.	L.	Pct.
Milwaukee	78	45	.634
Col. Springs	74	50	.597
St. Joseph	62	58	.517
Kansas City	63	59	.516
Denver	57	69	.452
Peoria	55	67	.451
Omaha	51	71	.418
Des Moines	53	74	.417

CENTRAL LEAGUE.

	W.	L.	Pct.
Fort Wayne	90	48	.652
South Bend	86	51	.628
Marion	70	65	.519
Wheeling	66	68	.493
Evansville	64	68	.485
Dayton	61	76	.445
Terre Haute	59	79	.428
Gr. Rapids	48	89	.356

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The Religious World

Shall Episcopalians Have an Archbishop

It is noteworthy that the centralizing tendency that has begun to permeate so many of the more democratic religious denominations should be also gaining strength in a body like the Protestant Episcopal Church. The *Churchman,* the leading organ of the liberal element among American Episcopalians, urges upon the church the adoption of the principle of the archbishopric. It is said that Episcopalians have no way of expressing the united voice of their communion save at the triennial conventions, and precedent discourages utterances on non-ecclesiastical questions even then. "The time is past," says the *Churchman,* "to point complacently to the papacy as a warning against such a development." The abuses of power by individuals placed in a position of supreme power in the religious sphere are believed to be no bar to the establishment of an archbishopric guarded by proper restrictions to secure its democratic and scriptural administration. It is implied, though not stated, by this journal that the principle at present in force in the Protestant Episcopal Church of according certain archepiscopal functions to the senior bishop of the church is inadequate and unsatisfactory. The accident of seniority renders no man a typical or fit exponent of the dogmas and polity of an ecclesiastical organization. This fact has been accentuated by the death on September 7 of Bishop Clark of Rhode Island, who has for some years been the presiding bishop of the American church. His public utterances on the question of changing the name of the church and other current problems have been openly attacked and repudiated by some factions of the body which he nominally represented. There is no apparent reason why Bishop Tuttle of Missouri, who succeeds to the position of senior bishop, should be any better suited to speak for American Episcopalians generally than his predecessor. It is said that owing to Bishop Tuttle's ill health his duties may be delegated to Bishop Doane of Albany, who is very well known to the American public as well as to his own church, and who has often spoken wisely and well on public questions. Such a step would be a tacit recognition of the desirability of choosing the presiding bishop by some fairly democratic method of election.

A Free Church Political Party

It is inevitable that the movement against the education bill among the Free Churches of England shall sooner or later find political expression. This action is foreshadowed in an interesting article by the Rev. C. Silvester Horne in the *Christian World,* on the need of the hour for Nonconformists. That need is Free Church parliamentary candidates. At no time during the last thirty-five years has there been such a small number of Free Churchmen in Parliament; their number being quite disproportionate to their voting strength. Mr. Horne maintains that not fewer than from one hundred and fifty to two hundred Free Church members should be sent to Parliament, and he makes an appeal to Nonconformist laymen of wealth and leisure to come forward and offer themselves to those constituencies that are not yet provided with candidates. He names certain pastors who would make good candidates, among whom is Dr. Clifford, who, according to the opinion of a Liberal leader, "should be in the next cabinet, and should express Free Churchmen's views when it frames its educational bill." The Nonconformists of England are evidently becoming thoroughly aroused on the education question, and are awakening to a consciousness of their strength. Passive resistance is rapidly changing into active resistance, and it is coming to be universally felt that one of the greatest struggles of the century for religious freedom is impending. Nor will Mr. Chamberlain's fiscal scheme be able to deflect the interest of the people from this burning question, as it was doubtless intended to do. Until it is settled right the education question will be to Nonconformists the paramount political issue. The Free Church leaders deprecate the formation of a Free Church political party; they raise a note of warning against the employment in elections of exclusive test questions, and wish to avoid

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HOUSE AND GROUNDS NEAR BALTIMORE, PURCHASED BY FRENCH NUNS

that sectional action which has broken up the Liberal party and lowered the type of its representatives. Principal A. M. Fairbairn, of Mansfield College, expresses the prevailing sentiment when he says in answer to Mr. Horne's manifesto: "I do not seek to fight this question as a Free Churchman, but simply as an English citizen; and so I would not have any candidate accepted simply because he, like myself, belongs to a Free Church. On the contrary, I feel that our appeal to the state is strong in proportion as it is made on the ground of civil injustice. But, as I strongly believe that I am all the better an English citizen that I am a convinced and sincere Free Churchman, I hope there will be no lack of candidates who, as good members of Free Churches, are good citizens."

French Nuns Find Maryland Home

At the Convent of the Perpetual Rosary, Baltimore, are a number of Dominican nuns whose home at Rouen, known as the Convent of Bon Secours, was closed by order of the French government. The nuns have purchased, in picturesque Irvington, near Baltimore, thirteen acres of ground, on which is a pretty house containing sixteen rooms. The property at Irvington was paid for in cash, the price being $28,000. Having bought their land the nuns engaged an architect and instructed him to prepare plans for the erection of a handsome chapel and other improvements, to cost $100,000. When all is ready for the new occupants the exiles in Europe will be notified and the general pilgrimage to the new world will begin. The nuns could scarcely have found a prettier spot for their future home than that selected in Maryland. From the veranda of the building a magnificent view can be had of the surrounding country. The property stands on an eminence, near the grounds of the College of Mount St. Joseph.

A Theologian of the Old School

Dr. Alvah Hovey, formerly president of the Newton Theological Institution, who died at Newton Center, Mass., September 7, was the most conspicuous Baptist representative of the type of theology often spoken of as "traditional." But Dr. Hovey received nothing on tradition; he demanded scriptural proof for every dogma, every theory, and grounded his own well organized system upon proof texts depending for their authority upon a rigid doctrine of inspiration. He was candid, patient and familiar with modern theology, but was almost untouched by its fundamental concepts and its spirit. Yet the latter years of his teaching career brought no small degree of adjustment to the more recent thought upon the origin of the biblical writings and the doctrines of salvation. Dr. Hovey is survived by but one eminent Baptist theological

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teacher of his generation—President H. G. Weston of the Crozer Theological Seminary at Upland, Pa. The other three American Baptist theologians who have left their mark upon religious thought outside as well as within their own denomination have been men of progressive, if not radical tendencies: Ezekiel G. Robinson, once president of Brown University, who died some ten years ago; President Strong, of Rochester, and Profesor W. N. Clarke, of Colgate Theological Seminary, whose respective text-books of theology, differing as widely as the poles, are highly esteemed among students of all evangelical denominations. As to Dr. Hovey's impress upon the present-day thinking of Baptists, it is very strong in New England, where his students are chiefly found. The theological ideas of Baptists in other parts of the country, or rather of the northern states, are in a transition state in which many inconsistent tendencies can be discerned. But even among the more conservative many of the tenets confidently affirmed by such teachers as Dr. Hovey have been consciously or unconsciously abandoned under the irresistible influence of the changing intellectual habits of the age.

Tolstoi and the Roman Catholics

There are picturesque possibilities in the visit of any eminent leaders of thought to that implacable old prophet, Count Tolstoi. Some of these stormy interviews of his with men of high renown are liberally exploited in the public press. Little has been written, however, at least in the United States, of Tolstoi's bitter denunciation of the Roman Catholic Church on the occasion of the visit of two distinguished Roman Catholics to his home this summer. Professor Salvatore Minocchi and Rev. Giovanni Semeria, both of whom are men of liberal tendencies but unquestioned loyalty to the church, sought to defend before Tolstoi their position as Roman Catholics, in the course of a discussion of modern religious problems. It is said that the terrible old man declared that both the Roman and the Greek churches had proved false to the gospel and had corrupted the true conception of Christian life; and that he deplored the fact that two such men of intelligence and conscience should remain in the service of the Roman Church. The eminent gentlemen could scarcely have expected any other outcome of the conversation if they are familiar with the works of this Russian John the Baptist, but their open humiliation is naturally not relished by the authorities at Rome.

The Heathen at Home

Two picturesque religious crusades soon to be undertaken deserve at least passing mention in a survey of the religious world. John Alexander Dowie is about to send a delegation to New York City to convert the sinners of the metropolis to the Elijah I. type of religion; and the Salvation Army is planning a campaign in the feud belt of the Kentucky mountains to show the advocates of the American vendetta the error of their ways. In each case the zealous missionaries will have a large job on their hands. It is hard to say whether Dowie's elders will have any easier time on Manhattan Island than the lads and lassies of the army among the riflemen who shoot their cousins in the back on the road to church. Both the New Yorkers and the Kentuckians are fairly immune to ordinary novelties in the way of religion, though for rather different reasons: the man of Gotham being now and then frankly pagan, while your Appalachian American is nothing if not orthodox. It is to be hoped that after New York has had a few months of Dowie she will appreciate the true greatness of Chicago in quietly allowing him and his cult to sink into obscurity after years of notoriety and vain strife. As for the strenuous assasins in the southern highlands, if they can be soundly converted to the gospel of peace and good will, they will make good citizens and good Christians. They have always been good soldiers, philosophical on a hard tack diet and not too squeamish with a gun. Education, clean politics and a not too militant Christianity will transform them within a generation.

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CHICAGO AT THE END OF A CENTURY

By EDMUND BUCKLEY

THE celebrity justly due to the *primus inter pares,* the first among equals, is claimed by Chicago. Mont Blanc is justly celebrated as the loftiest peak in Europe, although Monte Rosa rises only five hundred and sixty feet less high into the air; and so Chicago has impressed Ernst von Hesse-Wartegg, a widely traveled German author, as the greatest *Kulturmerkwürdigkeit* of the modern world. The length of this word is not more likely to take away the breath than is the meaning; for it declares Chicago to be the greatest "culture-remarkableness" on earth. Let us see in what respects this is true.

Chicago is situated on a stream near the southern limit of Lake Michigan. This sentence is so trite as to hazard the attention of the reader accustomed to taste articles by their first sentence; yet it contains enfolded within it not less than all the preëminences of which Chicago can boast. The fact is, that nature herself made Chicago, leaving to puny man only the discovery—which he was marvelously slow to make—and execution of her imperial will. "These temples—whether to commerce or culture—grew as grows the grass," following the same necessities of multiform law. Geography can quickly teach us that Chicago does not more certainly depend upon the earth for its existence than it does upon the configuration of that earth for each and every eminence it has attained. Chicago is metropolis of the best part of the Mississippi Valley, which, in turn, is the most productive of earth's regions in the utilities of life, unless that be the yet undeveloped valley of the Yangtse in China. The preëminent utilities for human food and facture are water, cereals, live stock, lumber, steel, copper, clay and fuel. And so, as Rev. Robert Collyer phrased it, "Nature called the lakes, the forest, the prairies together in convention, and they decided that on this spot a great city should be built." They made Chicago the largest and cheapest market on earth for water, cereals, live stock and lumber, and as cheap as any for the balance of the above-mentioned utilities. It might seem that water, the first item in our list, was everywhere procurable in sufficient abundance, but this is not so. Chicago uses, as a ready-made reservoir, the third largest body of fresh water on earth, and consequently can furnish water, without which fuel is useless to supply power, at a much lower rate than any other large city in America, charging one-third less than New York, which has the next cheapest supply.

A glance at the map will visualize for any one this strategic location of Chicago, whether as collecting, manufacturing or distributing center. It lies at the southern terminus of the east-and-west waterway and also at the northern terminus of the east-and-west landway, in either case like the knobs of an opened fan spreading over a semicircular space with the radius of a thousand miles. While each knob gains greatly because coincident with the other one, that of the waterway both started Chicago's growth and later on

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CORNER OF STATE AND MADISON STREETS, CHICAGO

The busiest corner in the retail district; showing Mandel Bros.' store, Columbus Memorial Building and Marshall Field & Co.'s retail store. On this street walks the largest well-dressed crowd in the world.

secured its supremacy over St. Louis, which had long rivaled it as a railroad center. Communication with the East, afforded by the great lakes, early made Chicago the great distributing center for eastern products to all points both west and southwest. The superior railroad facilities were direct result of these waterway trade routes; for, when railroad building began, Chicago formed the natural focus, to reach which all sections of the country, south, west and north of it, were opened up to settlement. In consequence of this favorable site on the great lakes, the tonnage of the 17,553 vessels reaching Chicago in 1900 was over seven millions, which places the city next to London, New York and Antwerp as a commercial port, and first in the world as a lake port. It is a queer anomaly that none of the shipping involved in this mighty traffic is visible as one approaches Chicago from the lake. Piers and breakwaters have been built into the lake, of course, but only a few pleasure yachts and a couple of revenue cutters are visible near them. The ships, freighted with passengers or goods, have penetrated the heart of the city, where on the river shores stand the vast warehouses and elevators. These shores, with their connected basins, offer an entire harbor line of forty-four miles, now needing only the deepening of the Chicago River by a few feet to make them adequate to Chicago's ever-growing trade.

But, having given so much to Chicago, nature gave yet more, two mighty streams of the West, the Illinois and the Mississippi, which needed only the Chicago drainage canal, destined soon to become also the Chicago ship canal, as a link, a sort of wedding ring, to unite them forever to the great lakes. Indeed, this function of commercial canal has been performed in smaller degree since 1848 by

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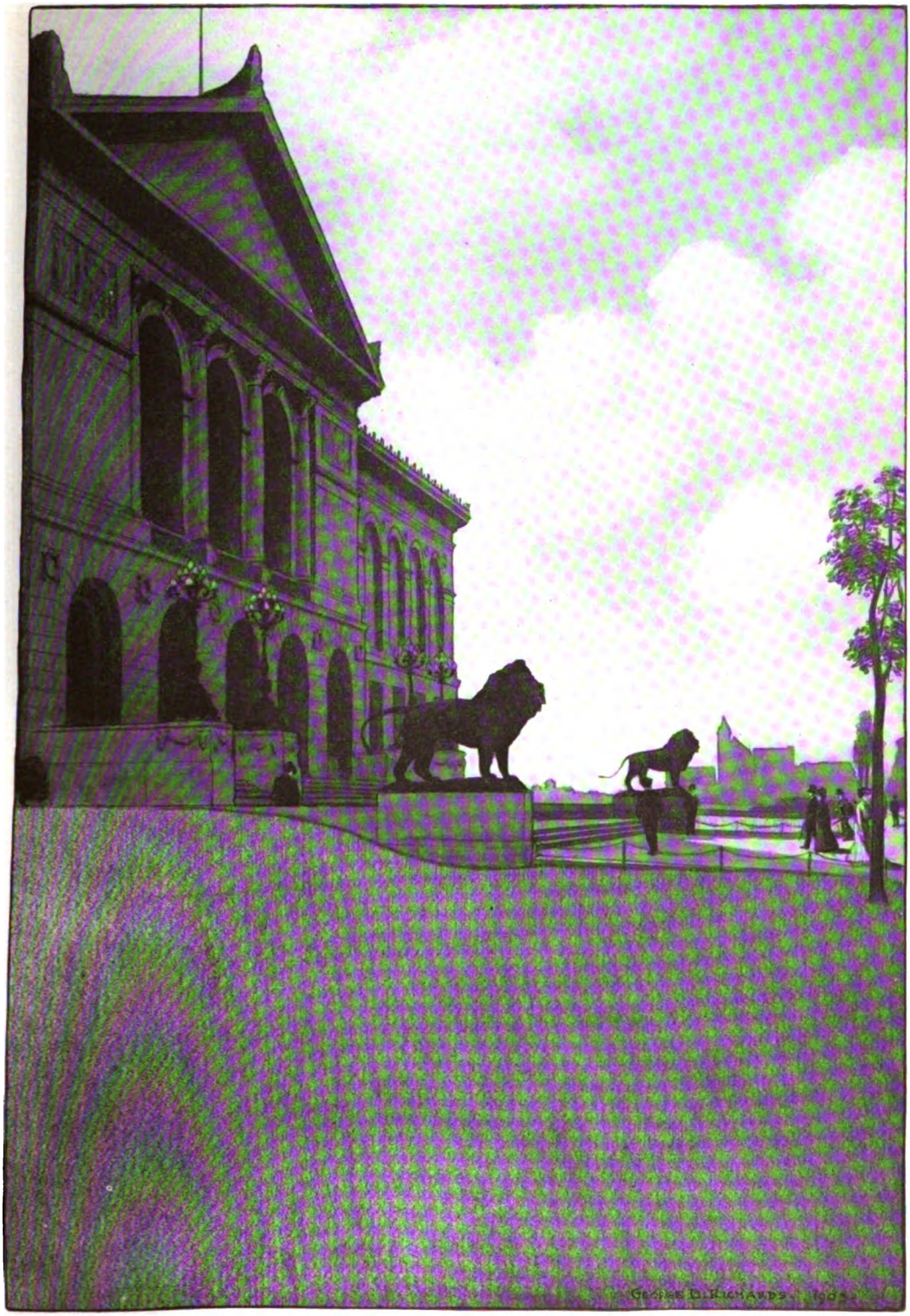

THE ART INSTITUTE, CHICAGO

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THE LAKE FRONT OF CHICAGO, LOOKING SOUTH
Here the lake is being filled in to make Grant Park.

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WABASH AVENUE, LOOKING SOUTH, WITH AUDITORIUM TOWER
By Albert Fleury

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MICHIGAN AVENUE, LOOKING NORTH FROM THE AUDITORIUM ANNEX
An unsurpassed row of business architecture.

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the Illinois and Michigan canal, a boat canal admitting barges of one hundred and fifty tons only, which, however, since its widening and deepening in 1866-70, bears twelve million tons of goods yearly. Thus, for strategic importance in commerce, the location of Chicago may be fairly compared with that of the Bosporus. West of the Bosporus lies the Mediterranean Sea with a myriad towns and cities on its shores; east of Chicago lie the great lakes also with a myriad cities; east of the Bosporus lies the Black Sea with its tributary Danube and Dnieper rivers; west of Chicago lies the Chicago Drainage Canal with its tributary Illinois and Mississippi rivers. The implications of this comparison will begin to materialize, so soon as the federal government shall undertake the additional outlay of about one-half the sum already spent by Chicago, needed to complete the waterway for large steamers by deepening the Illinois River. The ditch itself admits twenty-two feet of water, while the Suez and the Manchester canals have no more than twenty-six, and the St. Petersburg has only twenty-three feet.

But this Chicago Drainage Canal is already preëminent as the greatest sanitary engineering work of the century. It cost over $33,000,000 for its length of thirty-five miles, say a million a mile, but was a bargain at the price, since it precludes disease, the cost of which has been estimated at three times the expense of the canal. Chicago's persistently high death-rate from typhoid fever and its kindred, especially after heavy rain or rapid thaw, was clearly traceable to pollution of the lake by city sewage. If we accept the legal value of a human life at mature age at $5,000, the six hundred and thirty-six victims of typhoid fever in 1898 cost Chicago $3,180,000. And if we accept $90 as the average cost of a typhoid sickness in the six thousand victims who recovered in the same year, the cost to Chicago was $540,000. But the total of $3,720,000 represents the interest at four per cent on $93,000,000, whereas the canal cost only $33,000,000. On purely commercial grounds the canal was, therefore, a bargain. If one consider further the gain for all in avoiding the costly boiling of water, in the delight of tasting clean water and seeing clear water, and above all in escaping from the corroding care of always examining what you drink, then one may call sanitation nothing less than a gospel, and Chicago the greatest gospel-hall in America. Indeed, who can deny to this youngest metropolis of earth two functions of heaven itself, when she "bade the dry land appear" by raising streets and buildings eight feet above the level of the original marsh, and when she "cut out the rivers among the rocks" by excavating the drainage canal? Certainly in this latter Titanic achievement, she reversed the millenium-long operation of nature, for the canal restored the prehistoric outlet of Lake Michigan at its southwestern corner.

After the lake with her ships had made Chicago great, came the land with her trains to make the city greater. The railroad depots, planted in a curve around the then limits of the city, were speedily surrounded by dwellings, and then the prairie between their various lines filled up for a score of miles; so that now Chicago's depots are located in the heart of the city, its railroad tracks extend 1,500 miles within the city limits, and of them more than twice as many miles are elevated as in all other American cities combined! Besides these there are the cable and electric cars which now extend about 1,030 miles. As is well known Chicago is also preëminent as a railroad center. No other city in America, or indeed in the world, is the focal point of so many systems and lines—twenty-eight in all—of railroads. Examination of the map for any of these systems shows resemblance to a river system. As brooks unite to streams, and these to rivers; so rails connect prairie towns with cities and these with junctions on a trunk line which always leads to Chicago. A total number of 1,830 trains enter or leave the city every twenty-four hours. Of these 1,190 are passenger and six hundred and forty-nine are freight trains. Of the passenger trains eight hundred and twenty-one serve suburban and three hundred and sixty-nine through traffic, while of the suburban two hundred and fifty-one trains run on one line alone, making it the largest in the world. A union depot that could accommodate this entire traffic would need to be larger than the two great Boston stations and the Grand Central

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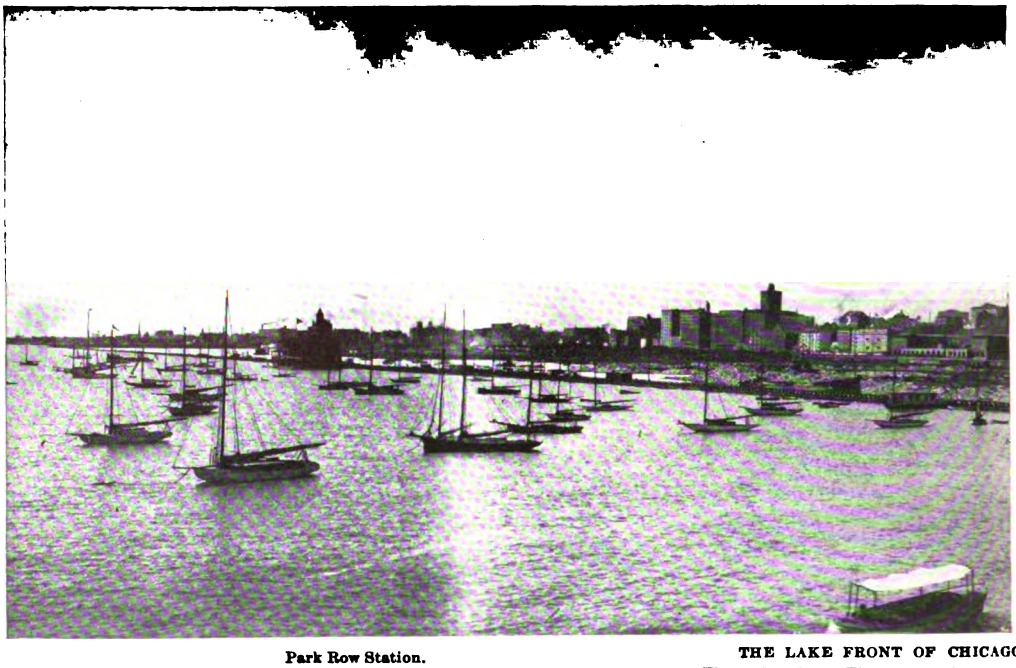

Park Row Station.

THE LAKE FRONT OF CHICAGO,
The Auditorium. Fine Arts Building. Art Institute.

Station of New York combined. "In the thunder of such traffic the clamor of rivalry long since died away."

It is unusually fortunate that this location, where men must congregate, is also healthful to a degree preëminent among all American cities with a larger population than Milwaukee, which had 285,315 in 1900, as well as among the large majority of cities with over thirty thousand population. This is distinction enough, though far from the claim paraded in a Chicago daily that Chicago was "the healthiest city in the world, with the possible exception of Stockholm." Chicago owes its low death rate, for example 13.56 per thousand in 1901, to various causes. The "Windy City" gets its smoke dissipated by breezes from lake or prairie which are equally free from malaria. Its water supply is abundant and increasingly pure. The density of its population is less than in any other large city, as shown in the fewness of tenements, the abundance of detached houses, and the wideness of the streets. The cool temperature has an annual average of only fifty degrees; for the isotherms or lines of equal temperature around the world—which diverge widely from the parallels of latitude—trend southward between Vancouver on the west coast of America and London on the west coast of Europe, and reach their lowest point about Chicago, thus giving it the coolness without the cloudiness that darkens Vancouver and London. The young people that settle in it more than in any other city are at the maximum of health, and reduce the proportion of death rate to the entire population. Finally, the board of health has secured unusual success by the education of mothers through a pamphlet of instruction sent to parents after each childbirth; by regulation of the milk supply; by compulsory vaccination of public scholars; by isolation of contagious and infectious diseases; and by provision of antitoxin. That the male death rate, which is everywhere higher than the female, is exceedingly so in Chicago arises perhaps from the more strenuous life of the western metropolis with its exceptional chances for fortune-winning.

A curious result of the combination of cool and sunny climate with railroad facilities appears in the horticulture of Chicago, which the last two decades have seen outgrow that of any other center five times over. Whereas other large

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SEEN FROM THE HARBOR

New Post office. Montgomery Ward Co. First National Bank. Marshall Field & Co. Masonic Temple. Trude Building.

cities meet only their own needs, Chicago ships over the entire country and especially to the South; for the northern flower is hardier and will keep for a week after being cut, and when grown under glass can have its supply of water and heat controlled. More sun, which is desirable, could be got further north, but there the railroad center fails. So Chicago is likely to remain flower-city of America, shipping during the four best months of the season about four hundred thousand carnations and three hundred thousand roses a day.

It is obvious that where location preëminently favors both the collection of raw material and the distribution of finished products there must also flourish various industries. The recital of these striking facts usually calls forth the objection, "You Chicagoans exaggerate so much," to which the reply has been, "We have to. To reach the truth about Chicago, we have to seem to lie." But even so, such is the unequaled rapidity with which Chicago grows that it is constantly beating its own brag. Here are some of the industries wherein that city excels in America and frequently in the world.

First in importance, of course, comes the world-wide famous meat-packing at the Union Stock Yards, the products of which in 1900 amounted to the enormous sum of $257,000,000, made from over seven million hogs, over three million sheep, and nearly two million cattle. But the 27,861 employees earned only $14,000,000, which indicates a small proportion of the proceeds for local labor. However, in financial volume this is the largest localized industry in America and doubtless in the world. Its nearest rivals, besides other packing centers at Kansas City and South Omaha, are men's clothing, amounting to $103,000,000 in New York, iron and steel $90,000,000 in Pittsburg, printing and publishing $78,000,000 in New York again, and the milling of flour $49,000,000 in Minneapolis. Along with the meat thus produced goes a correspondingly large quantity of by-products, such as soap, oleomargarine, glue, gelatin, oils, and drugs with marvelous powers, among which are the most powerful astringent known, made from the suprarenal gland, and a medicine for nervous diseases, made from the gray brain matter of calves. Nothing of the animal is now lost but the squeal, and a sample

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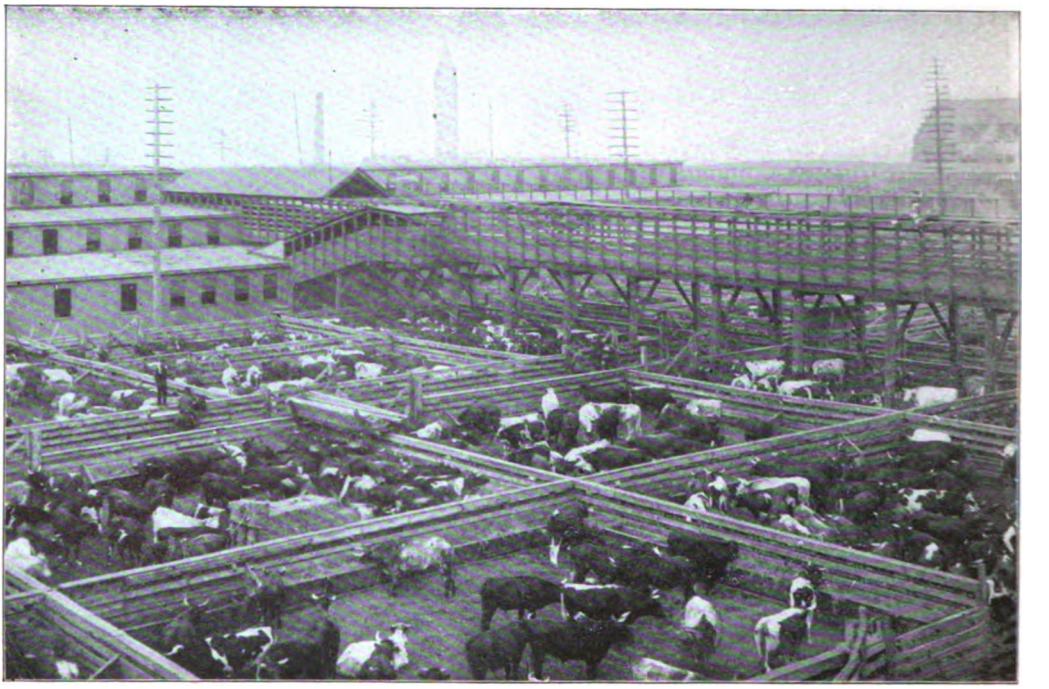

THE UNION STOCKYARDS, CHICAGO
Here is transacted the largest business in the world.

of that was preserved by phonograph for the Paris Exposition in 1900!

Next in importance stand the foundry and machine-shop products, amounting to over $44,000,000 in 1900, followed by agricultural implements with over $24,000,000, and railroad cars (at Pullman) with over $19,000,000. Chicago leads all other American cities also in the facture of saddlery and harness, with nearly $2,000,000, and reed organs with nearly $11,000,000 worth.

Not to mention many other entire industries, in which Chicago, by the time of her first centennial, has achieved second rank—generally to New York—there are some single factories preëminent for their capacity in America and indeed in the world. A type of such is a factory of the smaller musical instruments, which produced last year fifty thousand mandolins and guitars, six thousand each of drums and banjos, and seventy-five harps. The harps are all that are made in America, and are used also in the best orchestras of Europe. Ninety per cent of the workmen in this factory are foreigners, but under control of American foremen and using American material—spruce, for example, furnishing the best sounding-board—produce instruments fine in tone, true in scale and splendid in finish. One-quarter of all are exported, but far more musical instruments are now made and used in America than in any country of Europe.

As a market Chicago is well known to be preëminent in grain and lumber, but it also contains single stores which distribute more of certain goods than any other store in America. A type of this kind in dry goods has from seven to nine thousand employees in its vast retail store and about five thousand in its wholesale. Success here is attributed to a thorough integrity free from the tricks of the trade, to practicing the golden rule with both customers and employees, and to a progressiveness which neglects no new idea.

Another store carries the largest stock of books and stationery, both retail and wholesale, in America; and attributes its success to uniformity of price for books, upon which it had been the custom to give discounts to preachers, teachers, and the knowing ones generally. But nothing can indicate more clearly the strategic location of Chicago than the mail-order business, which originated and

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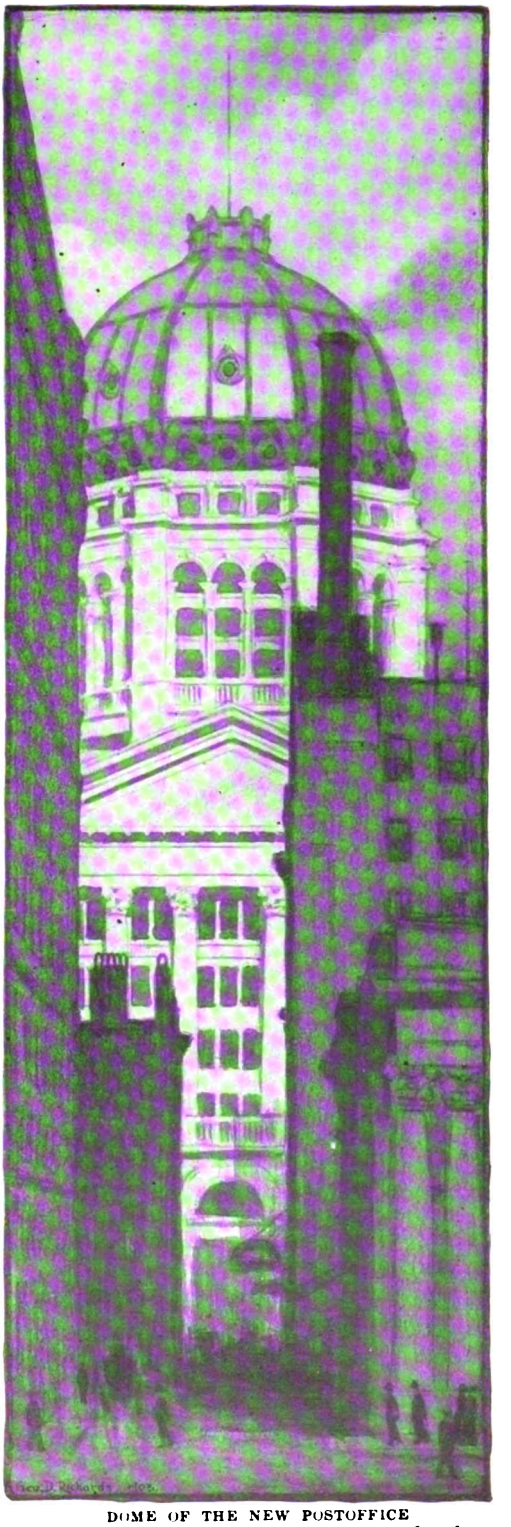
also attains its largest development there. A type of this kind receives money orders equal to the entire business of such a sized city as Cleveland. It issues some ten million circulars in a year, has two million live customers, and has returned to it less than two per cent of the goods it sends out, although always ready to make good its guarantees in that regard.

But enough of Porkopolis and pig iron. What of culture in Chicago, what of the activities that make life worth living at all? Less than a decade ago, Mr. Kipling closed his visit to the new metropolis with the verdict, "Having seen Chicago, I urgently desire never to see it again. Its people are savages, its air is dirt, its waters are the waters of the Hoogly." The caustic comment once had ample justification, but has already become obsolete. The waters have been purified, the polluters of the air are prosecuted and the savages are undergoing the transforming process of—education. This education needed to be extensive, and so it is on no less a scale than the largest in America. As this fact has not long been true, and public attention has not before been called to it, a classified list of collegiate and professional students in Boston, New York and Chicago—no other city being a close rival—is here given, based, except for art and music, upon the report of the Commissioner of Education for the year 1900-01, since which date all the changes have been decidedly in favor of Chicago:

	Boston.	New York.	Chicago.
College and post-graduate	4,111	4,002	4,056
Technical School	1,277	None.	228
Medicine	1,138	1,719	3,579
Law	1,226	1,810	913
Theology	378	271	839
Dentistry	295	422	1,266
Pharmacy	193	506	360
Veterinary	18	46	77
Art	703	4,971	2,617
Music	2,000	1,500	7,000
	11,339	15,247	20,925

It is notable, furthermore, that Chicago contains the largest and richest two universities of any city in the country, namely, the University of Chicago and Northwestern University. The latter is the largest denominational university in the world, has the largest and best equipped dental school in the world, and the largest school of pharmacy in the



DOME OF THE NEW POSTOFFICE
The exchange of mail in Chicago is second only to that of New York.

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country. The University of Chicago has surpassed all precedents in the rapidity of its growth—fivefold within one decade; in the extent of its affiliation with colleges and academies—with the purpose of raising their standards; in the scope of its university extension and correspondence courses; in the number of learned journals published; in the continuousness of its sessions—which suspend for only one month in the year; in the munificence of the gifts it has received, and finally in its plans and provisions for further expansion.

The six theological seminaries of Chicago, with their aggregate of over eight hundred students, now constitute it the largest theological center in the world, just as its four dental schools do for dentistry. America was fast losing both its teeth and its soul, and needed these large institutions. Again, the Art Institute is the largest single school of its kind in America, though the unique collection at the Metropolitan Art Museum of New York, to which moreover the Rogers' bequest of $6,000,000 will henceforth make constant additions, insures to that city present leadership in the field of art. On the other hand, Chicago easily surpasses its eastern rival in the realm of music, whether in education, orchestra, chorus or library.

The public schools of Chicago supply an adequate basis upon which the soaring superstructures of her professional education can be built; for they are both ample and distinguished for progressiveness. The Board of Education represents the varied races, religions and classes of the city, and the merit system was recently extended to the teachers.

The libraries of Chicago have not yet recovered from the burning of 1871, but are complementing each other with splendid effect; and one of them—the Newberry—contains the largest and rarest collection of musical scores, periodicals and literature to be found in the United States. Last but not least among public educators, the daily press of Chicago is probably preëminent in America for elegance of typography, independence of political parties, and promotion of civic reform.

As for architecture, sculpture and painting, while Chicago is doing admirably in all, and especially in its office and domestic buildings, it yields first place to New York. Its first conquests must be clean air and streets, for all things look alike in the soot.

In the matter of music, the public spirit and musical sense of a group of fifty-three men forming the Orchestral Association, combined with the leadership of Mr. Theodore Thomas, have given to Chicago what is perhaps the finest orchestra in the world, and without a serious rival in America, except in Boston. Mr. Thomas has trained both his orchestra and public until classical music is rendered here at least as well as in Boston, Paris, Berlin, or Leipzig, while modern high-class compositions have been rendered here commonly in advance even of Europe, as was notably the case with the symphonic poems of Richard Strauss, who is now conducting his own music in Berlin. Whereas conservatism and mutual prejudice hamper European leaders, Mr. Thomas is distinguished equally by progressiveness and catholicity, with the natural result of preëminence in his sphere. The Apollo Chorus, long under the leadership of Mr. W. A. Tomlins, has achieved almost equal national renown in the field of vocal music. A third musical factor is perhaps also unequaled in America, namely, the Amateur Musical Club, with several hundred members, which promotes musical culture by public and private concerts and by educating promising musicians. In the realm of literature, as in that of art, Chicago acknowledges with esteem the primacy of New York.

It would be useless to deny and foolish to palliate the fact that the ill repute of Chicago for boodle and crime has been well earned. Even here, however, the terrible truth has sometimes been overdrawn. About a year ago an authority was reported in the press to say that Chicago had a murder for every day in the year and two for Sunday. Traced to its author, the statement reduced to the very different one that for certain brief periods this has been the case. But, though short of this turpitude, Chicago both has and deserves the worst reputation in America for hold-ups, sneak-thieves, vagrants, grafters, barrel houses—to accommodate its homeless men and boys

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THE CHICAGO RIVER, NEAR ITS MOUTH
This is the largest inland port in the world.

—policy, craps and street gambling. Statistics afford ample confirmation of this bad repute; for, though the Chicago city statistician assigns 4.14 per cent as the average for all crimes in Chicago against an average of 5.01 per cent in twelve other large cities, his analysis in another table shows that this average for Chicago is kept unduly low by neglect of the city to arrest "vagrants" and "suspicious persons." If the proper figures were inserted for these two classes, the ratio of all crimes would appear higher than the average; and indeed the analysis shows it to be higher than any in robbery, burglary, forgery, assault and violation of city ordinances. But against this black record can be set a civic reform, the widest and securest that America has seen, which will doubtless soon show its effect in statistics.

As fast as political corruption was excluded, other civic reforms proceeded apace. Institutions like the bureau of statistics, the juvenile court, the parental school and the municipal lodging-house were founded, a school commission was appointed, civil service brought with practical completeness under the merit system, steam railways were forced to elevate tracks at their own great expense, and street railways to grant transfers. Economy has prevailed in electric lighting, water supply, garbage removal and sewer construction, so that municipal ownership in these plants has been gloriously vindicated. Not less has probity prevailed in the cash payment of the city's bills, in conservation of trust funds, and in payment of rebates on overpaid assessments.

But Chicago is preëminent also in other social forces making for progress. Its Hull House ranks with a social settlement in New York as the oldest in the United States; and it is easily the largest and best, as also its head worker, Miss Jane Addams, is the most distinguished in the country. The labor union movement, with eight hundred thousand members, has reached its highest organization in Chicago, and socialism is most aggressive there.

The citizens that are achieving these varied wonders are themselves the most varied group resident in any city on earth, speaking some forty foreign languages. Moreover they continue to increase more rapidly than the people of any other city on earth. There is no reason to dispute the expert enumeration of the Chicago Directory for 1903 which yields 2,231,000 as the present population of the city, an increase since the census taking in 1900 of 532,425, or the entire population of Boston. These sure horoscopes of the past and the present unite, therefore, to indicate the destiny of Chicago to become the metropolis of America and of the world. Thus awakened by memory and vision to consciousness of her great future, Chicago may well keep mindful of the civic legend that has inspired her thus far, "I will."

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THE FUTURE OF THE JEWISH PEOPLE

BY

ISRAEL ZANGWILL

PROPHECY has been termed the most gratuitous of all forms of error, but the risks of error can be largely reduced if the future is envisaged scientifically as part of the same curve of which two points—the past and the present—are already given. Some form of prophecy is compulsory upon all of us, whether we be farmers sowing seed or statesmen introducing measures.

The past and present of the Jewish people are the clue to their future. The difficulty of seeing that past and present clearly is the chief obstacle to prophecy; not the difficulty of piercing through that mist which is supposed to veil the future. In attempting to get such clear vision, one is constrained to mount high enough to disregard all but the largest features of the landscape, and thus escape the danger of not seeing the wood for the trees.

We find the Jews at the most prosperous period of their history settled in Palestine as an agricultural, pastoral, military people, with one great capital, the center of the religious life and of the annual pilgrimages, and a few other important towns, none, however, of which owed its wealth to commerce. That was left in the hand of the Phoenicians, whose great ports of Tyre and Sidon drew all the shipping of the Mediterranean.

This brilliant period ends with the conquest by Nebuchadnezzar, but the captivity was restored, a second temple erected, the religion reshaped by Ezra and Nehemiah, and a renewed nationality, if mostly under various suzerains, managed to sustain itself in the Holy Land until the capture of Jerusalem by Titus in 70 A. D. Henceforward the Jews existed only as a religious brotherhood, ubiquitously dispersed. This religious community, however, still coincides with a racial unity, since the religion made union with members of other faiths practically impossible. The Jews could not marry Christians, nor did the Christians desire to marry Jews. If nature ever showed a tendency to break through these conventions, the state added its death penalty to the forces against fusion. In this way the Jewish people was completely insulated throughout almost the entire Christian era. Sometimes even the Jews were marked off by actual badges: at all times they were distinguished by persecution, actively aggressive or passively restrictive.

This isolation was not, be it remembered, an isolation in space. The Jewish people was interfused, in greater or less

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proportion, with almost every people on the planet. We find it energizing wherever our vision turns: from England to Italy, from Poland to Persia, from the Barbary States to Cochin China. It lived in contact with every nation, civilized or savage, it underwent the influence of every environment, it played a part in every history. Two effects follow, first, the transformation of a people into detached groups, each of which is apt to

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take on a petty corporate life of its own in practical obliviousness of its larger national unity; second, the transformation of function from agricultural to commercial, in obedience to the external forces denying Jews land, excluding them from the guilds of labor and restricting them to finance.

The Jews in fact became the middlemen of the world, as well intellectually as commercially. This is their function in the symbiosis, as biologists phrase it; these were the terms on which they were permitted to live for the benefit of their neighbors, and so pliantly did they adapt themselves to the service of mankind that the natural human instinct for political independence was finally atrophied. Living thus everywhere, yet denied territorial possessions anywhere and therefore tied nowhere, they are turned into a race of nomads. They become, in fact—though in a novel sense—a people of commercial travelers. But one thing must be added—the commercial traveler carries always amid his samples a Bible. And this forms the true center, a book substituted for a geographic center, and a condition of spirit for a point of space.

Moving round this pivot, the landless denationalized groups retain subtly their sense of constituting a people, nay, the Chosen People, and thus they win back the self-respect and dignity which the contempt of Christendom must otherwise have undermined. They remain, indeed, the conscious superiors of their persecutors, the aristocrats of faith. For those around them seemed to them given over to savage beliefs, however noble the temples reared to other gods than the one sole unpicturable spirit Creator of heaven and earth, who has selected Israel to make known his name to the heathen. And thus, although they speak Spanish or French, Chinese or Dutch, Russian or Arabic, although they change their psychology and even their physical appearance in harmony with the particular environment, their religion, woven into the very texture of life by countless ceremonies and picturesque traditions, keeps them still unified, even as the Hebrew of the synagogue services provides an undying lingual link.

Like loose water, then, the race, during almost the entire Christian era, flowed easily from one country to another, moving under pressure of necessity and running into every kind of shape forced upon it by the local configuration, everywhere reflecting different skies and other trees, and yet all parts of the same water, utterly immiscible with other streams, and all ultimately to flow to Palestine. As if the voluntary segregation was not enough, it was supplemented by the dams and dikes of the oppressor.

This is a condition from which one may easily prophesy persistence. A people that has learned to live without a country is unconquerable. Might is baffled when opposed to the ubiquitous, the infinitely evasive. For it will never be simultaneous; never will the combined peoples break into an attack upon the Jews, as at the stroke of a conductor's baton. Masses may be forcibly baptized here and there—though even that is met by crypto-judaism. And there are always plenty of other Jews elsewhere, vigorous and prolific. Here, indeed, is the secret of immortality.

But there is a force that is greater than might, it is love. Ever since the eighteenth century this force of love has been acting upon the Jewish people. With that epoch of revolution and its quickened sense of the human brotherhood, began the break-up of the Ghettos in western Europe. The Jewish clans, invited outside their high walls and admitted gradually to the civic life of Christendom, permitted to despecialize themselves from commerce and brought into contact with modern critical thought, found themselves exposed to a double disintegration. They were undermined from within and absorbed from without. Gone—at least from those educated in the general European schools—was that naïve sustaining conception of their superiority, their providential mission. The great achievements of Christendom, not only in the spiritual domain, but in the realm of arts and letters, became clear to them. The reason for their isolation seemed obsolete. A process of interfusion set in. It was not always admirable. With many, acceptance of Christianity was a weak concession to the tyranny of society, which has in no country quite ceased to penalize Judaism. For the Jew's loss of his old faith was not necessarily com-

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pensated by a new belief, and conversion —especially in Germany—was more often a mark of indifference than of illumination.

But the freer the Jew is left, the more he tends, if not towards Christianity, towards a broader view of it and towards the acceptance of Christ in the apostolic chain of Hebrew prophets. The modern Jew is a pro-Christian, only too eager to admire the ideals of whatever nation he lives amid, only too uncritical. There can be little doubt, therefore, that were the Jew left to himself and given a free run in Christendom and free elbow-room, he would, in the course of a few generations, be practically merged with his environment.

For this consummation, however, Christendom is too unchristian to wait. It requires three or four generations after the first emancipation, and before these generations are up, something is sure to happen to throw the Jew back upon himself; the Dreyfus case is what Bacon calls an "ostensive instance." But apart from such unpredictable particularities, it may be prophesied generally that with such a good "whipping-boy" as the Jew ready to the agitator's hand, no economic or other crisis will pass in any country without its Jews being called to account for it. It is a notorious device of statecraft to divert attention from internal evils to foreign affairs, and the Jews are a quasi-foreign body, provided at home in default of a better cover. These outbreaks of anti-Semitism, these incipient persecutions will always be answered by reactionary rigidescence in the Jewish ranks.

Moreover, of the eleven millions of the race only two millions at most are subjected to the relaxing influences of sunshine and liberalism. Only two-elevenths of the loose water are in any danger of evaporation. With more than half of the Jewish people penned in the Russian pale, periodically liable to massacres, such as that at Kishineff, the happier minority is kept, if only by sympathy, from deserting the miserable majority. Two opposing forces are thus at work upon the Jew; the wind and the sun. The gaberdine thrown open for a moment in the burst of heat is buttoned tighter the next before the biting blast. Even were the sunshine as constant and ubiquitous as the race, this stubborn life-force might not necessarily relax before it, since there would always be local differences of temperature and local variation of resistance and any remnant in any country would be sufficient to restock this eternal people. But considering how fitful and evanescent this sunshine is at its best, how swiftly veiled by regathering clouds of prejudice—note even in free England the outcry against the alien—considering, too, that the bulk of the race is still immured in the Dark Ages, it may safely be prophesied that the people whose obstinacy was already denounced by the Roman writers will long continue to persist in comparative isolation, however its religion becomes modified, as it can not fail to be vitally modified, under the influence of modern thought and freer life conditions.

And if this much could be predicted, even without taking account of the greatest conservative factor in modern Jewry, how much more confidently may it be predicted, when we allow for this marvelous new factor—Zionism. For, as if, indeed, by an historical miracle, just as the ancient religion begins to weaken and the segregating rites, ceremonies and dietary laws to dissolve, a new cohesive force arises to bind together the loosening atoms of Israel. Or perhaps it was always there —this sense of racial unity; perhaps it was the deep basal force of which unity of religion was only a superficial effect. It is strange to consider how little the Jew has cared to proselytize; how strongly he has felt that his peculiar religion was suited only to the peculiar people. "There is no truth but race," said Disraeli. It may be correspondingly, that Jew hatred, which formerly posed as religious and now poses as economic and social, was really always merely racial—the hatred for a superior people; a people that, whether by a climatic accident or biological sport, or whether by special choice, divides with the ancient Greeks the hegemony of races and outdoes even the Greeks by still existing with undiminished vitality and recuperativeness.

But whatever be the true motive power of so-called anti-Semitism, and whether it or race or religion has been the true preservative of the Jewish people, the Zionist movement compounded of all these

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three antiseptic factors—evoked by anti-Semitism, fed by racial sympathy and inspired by religious hopes—has come to cry halt to disintegration, to rescue at once the Jewish people from persecution and the Jewish psychology, with its rare spiritual products, from submergence in the general life. An assertion of Jewishness from within, it is more powerfully cohesive than even the external pressure of persecution in Russia or Roumania; it captures the "intellectuals" by pride as well as by pity. It knits together a thousand vacillators and holds them in the brotherhood, awaiting the necessarily slow fulfilment of the movement's aim—"a legally assured home in Palestine."

Waiting without working is a form of opium eating. It has been the disease of the Jew for eighteen centuries to intoxicate himself weakly with visions of coming glory; but working and waiting is a noble stimulation that is already producing a renaissance of Jewish life and letters, and helping the Jew to shuffle off the ignoble coil of the Ghetto. Already the swift development of physical manliness under new open-air conditions promises to bring back the ancient Maccabaean type.

The road to Palestine is hard and long. The Jew will probably make many a detour to his goal, and is most likely to settle as a first step in some neutral territory, less beset with political and religious pitfalls, there to reorganize his scattered forces, to relearn the lessons of coöperation and self-government, to readjust the balance of the old world and the new, and to reconcile his conceptions with the modern scientific vision of the universe and with the new, historical perspectives opened up to us by archæology. Thus tempered and prepared and reunited, he will await the opportunity of colonizing the Holy Land with his overflowing population, and there reinspired and resanctified by the fulfilment of his secular dream, he will continue his work toward the creation of a model state, which, set on Zion's hill, may be a light to the peoples.

The Jew's facile worship of Christendom has not been entirely merited by its solutions of the problems of civilization; his moral genius is not yet outmoded nor supererogatory. The race which produced Moses and Jesus, Isaiah and Spinoza, has still other messages to speak, and cross-fertilized as it now must be by all that Christianity has achieved in the sun during its own centuries of hidden life, it will surely not flower into its third national period without bearing some new precious fruit for the human race whose service is its highest ideal.

ARNOLD BÖCKLIN: THE PAINTER OF ROMANCE

BY

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TWO phases of civilization profoundly influenced modern, and especially German, thought and feeling: the Antique and the Renaissance. The former bequeathed to posterity the ideal of beauty, the latter the ideal of personal power. During the Greek era man and nature were in harmonious intercourse. The gods of the classic age are an idealization of humanity and a personification of the forces of nature. This is a characteristic of Hellenism and Germanic mythology alike. For both nature is alive in a marvelous degree. Her processes are comprehended in every instance as revelations of a deity. But German mythology remained fragmentary, hindered and arrested in its full development by the Roman conquest and by the advance of Christianity. Yet the instinct of legend forming, the saga-poetic activity, is to this day operative in the nation's heart.

The Renaissance is a revival of Hellenism and an attempt to solve the problem of its unification with Christian philosophy. The individual ceases to be merely part of the whole. Man and nature are separated. Man consciously lives his own

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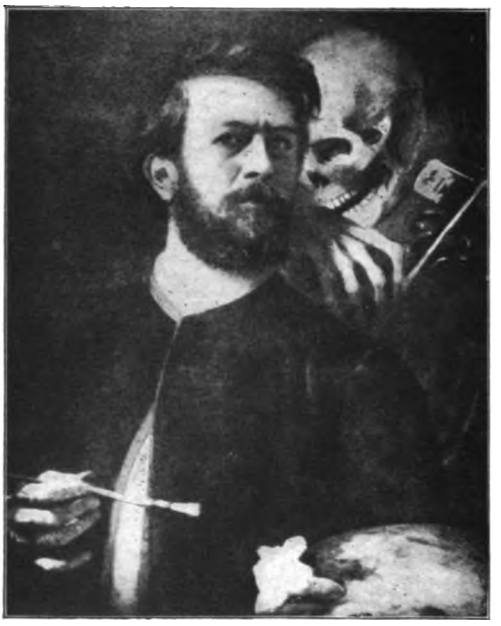

ARNOLD BÖCKLIN
From the portrait by himself at forty-five

life. Ideals are no longer realizable as during the Homeric time, but they become ethical abstractions, and personal power is the life motive of a Lorenzo de Medici, a Michel Angelo, Titian or Ariosto.

To combine into harmonious unity the ideal of the Antique and the longing for myth and adventure of the Renaissance has ever been the dream of the German.

Thus Greek and German have this in common, that Nature is understood and accepted by both only in the symbolized, personified, and spiritualized form of mythological creation. This is the secret of the influence of a Winkelman and of the paganism of Schiller and Goethe. The second part of Faust is the classic documentation of this dream of a marriage of Greek and German genius. And with Wagner and Goethe, Arnold Böcklin, the robust Swiss with a virile soul, shares the love of myth and the appreciation of antique beauty. The greatest of modern German painters, he is the representative of an antique—romantic Nature—mythology. An upright man, accepting life without quivering or wondering, simple and self-possessed, he adds to the most exquisite expression of the classic spirit, the titanic instinct to realize personal power.

It has been said that one may distinguish between German art and Böcklin's art, i. e., between German art before 1870 and after that date. Böcklin's own career is marked by this distinction. During the first half of the nineteenth century two groups of German painters were anxious to bring about a revival of national art. Men like Overbeck and Schadow, called the Nazarenes, thought to accomplish it by giving art a religious basis. Others, the Romanticists of the Düsseldorf school, Cornelius and Schnorr, sought the realization of this endeavor in a return to mediævalism. But "neither the Passion nor the Nibelungenlied were interpreted with conviction." Later, under French influence, the painters of Munich and Berlin had fallen into a style of painting entirely commonplace and trivial.

During the first period of his development, Böcklin shows the same spirit of tradition. But from 1870 to 1880 the really original artist is growing while he wanders southward, driven by the "ineffable nostalgia of his race for the cream-white villas, the fountains and the cypresses of Italy, and for the gleaming marbles and golden myths of Greece." In Rome and in Florence this personality of greatest caliber found himself and a

"FISCHENDE PANE"
(Pans fishing)

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"IM SPIEL DER WELLEN"
(Sport among the Waves)

method of expressing his wealth of ideas and his wonderful visions.

The picture "The Elysian Fields," painted in 1878, marks the change from tradition to the free and full activity of his genius. When it appeared with its "new, disturbing beauty," the critics were at a loss to understand the master and deplored the noble mind thus hopelessly at war with all the rules of art. And yet this work was the herald of the new idealism, and at the same time an interesting and inspiring masterpiece. The inner world of the man was so rich and profound that he could dare to be entirely himself and "to impose his dreams" upon his fellowmen.

Fritz Gurlitt, the Berlin art dealer, believed in the ultimate victory of Böcklin's art. In a small store on "Unter den Linden" he began selling the strange pictures. Whatever the art exposition rejected and the critics ridiculed, Gurlitt had the courage to exhibit. For a long time Böcklin sold all his paintings to him. A practical Swiss, Böcklin demanded cash for every canvas brought from Florence to Berlin. For years the pictures remained unsold, and Böcklin was in the extremest poverty, although Paul Heyse, the novelist, and Count von Schack, the art Maecenas, early became interested in his art.

Böcklin was born October 26, 1827, at Basle, the native town of Holbein, situated at the bend of the Rhine lying between the Jura, the Black Forest and the Vosges Mountains, on the boundary line between France and Germany. Early he showed a love for music, poetry and solitude. As a boy, he became acquainted with the collection of Holbein's works in the museum of Basle. Traces of the latter's influence may be found in many of Böcklin's paintings. His "Portrait," painted by himself at the age of forty-five, is a reminiscence of Holbein's "*Todtentanz.*" The poet-painter is listening to Death playing strange melodies from other worlds. Böcklin studied art in Düsseldorf, Antwerp, Brussels and Paris. While he was in Paris, 1848-1849, his father was

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"VILLA AM MEER"
(Villa by the Sea)

ruined by political changes, and Böcklin had to make a living by furnishing anatomical illustrations for medical textbooks. In 1850 he went to Rome, where he remained for seven years. There he was especially interested in landscape painting. Although very poor, he married an equally poor, but very beautiful, Roman girl, Angelina Pasucci. Henceforth love and happiness pervaded his life.

We cannot follow him in all his wanderings from Italy to Munich and to Weimar, where for two years he was professor at the school of fine arts. Under the mysterious but powerful influence of that classic milieu and home of German literature, he became a Hellenist. Soon he was back in Italy again, then in Basle, painting the frescoes in the vestibule of the museum and immortalizing by six decorative masques in a whim of great humor and satire certain prominent aldermen of his *Vaterstadt*. From Basle he turned to Florence, then to Zürich, and in 1890 he journeyed once more across the Alps to make Florence his home until his death in 1901.

Success came very late. At sixty he was almost unknown. But on his seventieth birthday Böcklin's art was recognized as a national art and his pantheistic Nature-philosophy was seen to be the view-point of all great artistic creations of German genius.

Böcklin's art is unique. He depicts a world of his own, or better, he draws our world of facts and things into the realms of his enchanted universe, where the antique ceases to be antique, because suffused with modern feeling; where the old becomes young and the ugly is translucent with immortal beauty. The painter has left far behind accepted theory and craft of art, creating forms and beings that have their own life and their own *raison d'être* by the magic touch of his will. He delights in painting Dianas, Pans, Tritons and Naiads, Centaurs and other beings of mountain and sea: a strange world but full of strength, humor and vitality.

How delightful in its "Ionic cheerfulness" is the painting called "Fishing Pans." Notice the droll expression of joy and surprise on the faces of the two hoary fellows who in their net have caught a beautiful nymph from the depth of a clear mountain lake. Equally cheerful and full of humor and strange beauty is the painting "Diana Asleep, Watched by Fauns." Another picture, "Sport among the Waves," a burlesque in colors, represents Naiads playing in the waves around a big rock far out in the ocean. It is a home-scene—of Naiads. Baby-Naiad, father-Naiad, uncles and aunts, cousins and other relatives, visiting, chattering; boy-Naiads turning somersaults in the water: a scene such as only a Böcklin could invent. The unreality and pedantry, nay absurdity, of much of our new-thought, our mind-training, and our intellectual femininism becomes at once apparent before the visions of such a world of overflowing animalism.

How different in tone and spirit is the painting called "Villa by the Sea," showing the wind-swept marble home of a vanished epoch of civilization. Elegy and deep melancholy are personified in the lonely woman standing on the shore and dreamily looking out into the immensity of sky and water where there is no dying nor becoming, but everlasting being.

Dubois-Raymond, indeed, lectured Böcklin on the impossible anatomy of his sea-giants, his fauns and water fairies. Yet Böcklin continued in spite of this scientific protest to assert the right of feeling against more discursive thinking. For he who paints like a scholar is as far from real art as he who occupies himself with science like a dreamer. Böcklin felt the qualities in things with greater intensity than most men are able to perceive them. Consequently he represented them entirely different from the aggregate of images that the mass of man-

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kind is calling Nature. With him color makes form instead of merely covering it. It is intense, brilliant, dazzling. His ocean is as blue as may be imagined; his meadows are as green as on the clearest and rarest June day, when the world is full of red roses and the pure white clouds are floating through the sky. The shadows in his mountain valleys are as deep as those Dante saw in Purgatory.

Böcklin's canvases are fairy tales, elegies or visions, princely experienced, royally told, exaggerated in the judgment of everyday common folk, but true and full of suggestion and inspiration for him who has the golden thread of poetry and fancy interwoven in the warp and woof of his immortal self. All his pictures are simple; the parts united by an inner necessity. Nothing is copy, all is experience. Böcklin's art would easily have degenerated into the grotesque like everything else allowed to work out its own whims and peculiarities, had it not been tempered and illuminated by the revelations of classic beauty.

Böcklin is always constructive rather than reproductive. His landscapes are nowhere to be found in reality. They are all imaginative and even visionary. He never painted directly from nature. He carried it in his mind, heart and soul. Some of his best representations of the sea were painted by him in Zürich, Switzerland. He received nature with his senses, to be sure, but then it passed through his dreams and appears in his pictures transfigured by the genius of his personality. Böcklin had the ever present sense of "our connection with the power that made things as they are." This energy is dynamic also in and through the artist's inspiration. A work of true art is always a transfiguration of actuality, where "facts are of divine sending instead of being habitual." Reality merely served him as a stimulus for an ideal representation of the ideal. He is never painting the material world, but his own conception and the visualization of it. And he is great and powerful enough to make it convincing to others. He looks at the world with the eyes of a Greek and the heart of a Novalis seeking the blue flower of romanticism, while his intellect is thoroughly modern. Standing before his wonderland of color and form, one is overcome by a feeling of joy and peace, a feeling that genuine art always imparts, as if the riddles of the sphinx had all been solved by the artistic interpretation of the mysteries of life and death.

THE ELYSIAN FIELDS

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A. Böcklin

AN IDYLL OF THE SEA

Past and present became one in Böcklin's world. Although his forms are Grecian, his color and his anti-classic humor are of to-day. In truly Dionysian manner Böcklin takes liberties with gods, man, ocean and land. Unheeding of conventional standards or rules of craft, he creates a world of his own, "making romance real and reality romantic." The margin of sea or sky, meadows or woodland, he peopled with creatures of his imagination, fusing myth, fable and fancy with classic repose and poise, and revealing and illustrating the kinship of man and nature: all radiant with a boundless creative vitality and with Hellenic solemnity and beauty.

The "Island of the Dead," by many considered Böcklin's greatest work, was painted in 1880. The real island belongs to the Ponza Islands, north of the Bay of Naples. The painting expresses the same sentiments as the "Villa by the Sea." Here the classic age is laid to rest in a time full of unrest. The spirit of divine peace breathes from this infinitely tragic spot in the silent waters.

In the future Böcklin's name will remain linked with that of Wagner and Goethe. In painting, music and poetry these three giants revealed to their nation and to the world the life secret of the German soul: the romantic longing for mystery and adventure combined with profound sympathy for classic beauty.

What William Watson sings of the sovereign poet is equally true of the sovereign painter:

"The glorious riddle of his rhythmic breath,
His might, his spell, we know not what they be:
We only feel, whate'er he uttereth,
This savors not of death,
This hath a relish of eternity."

MASQUES DESIGNED BY BÖCKLIN FOR THE KUNSTHALLE, BASLE

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THE BOSPORUS AT ITS NARROWEST POINT
The width here is only five hundred yards. The towers on the bank are those of Rumili Hissar, a fortress built by Mahomet II. in 1452

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THE INTERIOR OF THE MOSQUE OF ST. SOPHIA, CONSTANTINOPLE

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THE ISLAND OF LIFE

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THE ISLAND OF THE DEAD

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THE BALKAN STATES AND THE POWERS

BY

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THE most significant drama of history is the age-long contest of Orient and Occident. In the East and in the West there have developed two civilizations, radically diverse, mutually antagonistic. Certain forces of each have powerfully influenced the other, but as a whole neither could ever become assimilated. Either alone could dominate the world, but both could not permanently coexist. One or the other in the end must be supreme; one or the other must be subjugated. European civilization and Asiatic civilizations do not come from a common stock; they are essentially alien and hostile.

To-day it is Europe which is the victor. It is the ideas of Europe which dominate the world. European political authority has mastered Africa. It is Europe which, after all, is supreme in independent America. Europe controls the islands of Polynesia. Asia itself is overrun by European power, and in the end must yield to European masters. But it is only in the last few centuries that Asia has become decadent and European wealth and power have become so mighty as to overshadow the earth. There have been many times in the historic ages when the issue was in doubt, times when Orientalism bade fair to win. When Xerxes poured his hosts across the Hellespont and into Greece, the future of western civilization was dark. But the tide was rolled back by the valor of Greece, and in turn Alexander struck a heavy blow at the oriental empire. The triumph of Rome over Carthage and later over the orientalized successors of Alexander was a new birth of western power, which the rise and tremendous growth of Islam again threatened. The Saracens and the Turks after them regained what the East had lost in western Asia and in northern Africa, and at three points Asiatic hordes broke into Europe: over the vast plains of Russia and Poland, again by the route of Xerxes across the Hellespont, and over the Strait of Gebel el Tarik into the Iberian peninsula.

To turn back this tide of conquest involved a life and death struggle for centuries. The crusades were an episode of it. Russia emerged only as the empire of the great Khan crumbled and thus released the pressure from central Asia. The Moorish power in Europe did not fall until the conquest of Granada, in the year of the voyage of Columbus across the sea of darkness. But it must be remembered that at that very time the Mongol Khans had hardly ceased to reign as overlords of Moscow, that Tartar hordes more than once penetrated Poland and Hungary, that Turkish raiders ravaged German villages and that a Turkish army was besieging Vienna only a half-dozen years before the English revolution in 1689. Indeed the first foreign war of our own country was that with the oriental corsairs of Tripoli, and as late as 1815 we had to send a squadron to the Mediterranean to overawe the Algerian pirates. These Barbary rovers held to the old doctrine that between East and West, between Islam and Christendom, there was perpetual war.

The Turkish empire remains yet master of a portion of the fairest lands of Europe, and its expulsion from other such lands has covered only the century just past. These are the lands which bear most clearly the stamp of the long contest with Asiatic forces. They are the lands lying nearest to southern Asia, the direct route of conquest, the battleground of the ages. The people have had little opportunity of peaceful and orderly evolution. They have lived for ages either with arms in their hands or ground under a relentless despotism. The iron has entered into their souls.

The Balkan peninsula includes southeastern Europe, washed by the Black Sea, the Ægean and Adriatic, and by the narrow straits separating Europe from Asia. On the north the peninsula is set off by the Save and Danube Rivers and by the northeasterly sweep of the Carpathian Mountains. Nearly all of this historic land is mountainous. The great range of

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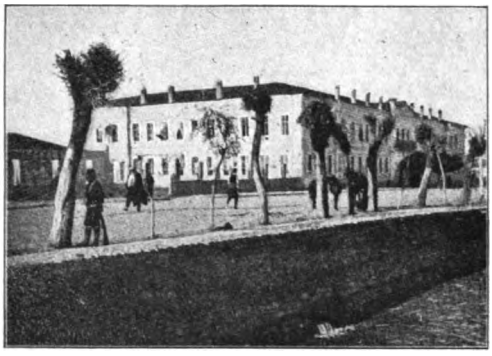

THE GOVERNMENT HOUSE AT MONASTIR

the Balkans sweeps westerly from the Black Sea and then in a great curve northerly around the western border of Bulgaria. The Dinaric Alps come down between Servia and Dalmatia, and the southern sweep of the Carpathians crosses the Danube and covers Servia. Then a confused mass of mountains spreads south and southeast to the extremities of Greece. Here and there a river makes its way by a winding valley among the hills, but as a rule they are short and turbulent. Bulgaria is a plateau, treeless, with water courses cut deep in the limestone, and descending sharply to the Danube. On the north of that river lies the rich alluvial plain of Roumania. The mountains are usually covered by great forests of beech, oak and fir, and the valleys and basins are very rich. The valley of Kazanlik, for instance, protected by sheltering mountains from the southwesterly winds, is covered with rose gardens, interspersed with Turkish villages, shaded by clumps of walnut trees, and is famous for its product of attar of roses. Across the wild mountains which fill the peninsula there are two deep furrows, the one north and south, from Belgrade to Salonika, the other cutting diagonally to the southeast. These passes were once traversed by Roman roads, whose lines are yet followed by the trunk railroads from Belgrade to Constantinople and Salonika.

Between the Black Sea and the Ægean are the famous straits which separate Europe from Asia: the Bosporus, the Sea of Marmora, the Hellespont. The Bosporus is a winding salt-water river, some twenty miles long, three miles across in its widest part and less than half a mile in the narrowest. Its shores are bold and picturesque, and amid the green foliage of the hills on both sides are palaces, mosques, castles and country houses. The lake known as the Sea of Marmora is one hundred and eighty miles long and forty-three miles wide, narrowing gradually to the Hellespont. This strait is about forty miles long and from three-quarters of a mile to four and one-half miles wide. The shores are lower than those of the Bosporus, and are strongly fortified. The old Turkish castles, known as the Dardanelles, have in modern times given their name to the strait. It was across the narrows of the Hellespont that the army of Xerxes crossed on two bridges of boats. Here also Alexander in turn led his army into Asia, and here the Turks crossed into Europe in the fourteenth century. The story of Hero and Leander, and the exploit of Lord Byron in imitation of Leander's, also relate to the Hellespont.

Like the rest of eastern Europe the Balkan peninsula is inhabited by a

A TYPICAL STREET SCENE IN MONASTIR

motley collection of races, speaking different tongues, holding different religions, and each keeping jealously to itself. There are Turks, Serbs, Bulgarians, Roumanians, Greeks, Albanians, Jews and gypsies, besides a sprinkling of several others.

The Turks are a conquering race who, although in a numerical minority, hold the others in subjection. Crossing from Asia in the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries they crushed opposition in a series

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of bloody battles and thereafter have remained encamped in these fairest lands of Europe. Their blood is diluted now so far that the old Mongol strain is all but lost. True Moslem, the Turkish conquerors offered subject races their option of the sword, the Koran or tribute. Many of the Slav landowners to save their property accepted Islam, and their descendants, Slav in race and in race pride, are counted to-day as Turks. Then, too, Turkish marriages have disregarded race, and so to-day the Turks of true Turkish descent have in their veins the blood of many peoples. But in speech and in religious and social ideas this heterogeneous race is after all set apart by itself, and is perhaps as truly Turkish as if their Ottoman blood were pure. Within certain limits it is not ancestry that counts in creating national characteristics so much as training, environment, the whole body of inherited and acquired ideas with which one looks out on life.

Serbs and Bulgarians are the two Slav races which swarm in the peninsula. Both belong to the eastern division of Slavs, with the Russians, though quite far apart not only in dialect but in historical traditions and in race consciousness. The Serbs, or Servians, are perhaps the more spirited people, and have a history richer in great achievements. The Bulgarian language is a concept form of Slavic, employing a great number of Turkish words and forms. Both of these Slav peoples came into the peninsula in the seventh century, both became converts to Christianity under the influence of missionaries from Constantinople in the ninth century, and both alike fell under the yoke of the Turks in the fourteenth century. The intervening ages are filled with their rivalries with each other and with the Greek emperors. The original Bulgarians were not Slavs, but were perhaps a Finnish tribe who overran the lands south of the Danube and conquered the Slav settlers there, with whom the Bulgars became absorbed, somewhat as Normans did with Saxons in England.

The Roumanians present the curious spectacle of a Romance people, with a language akin to French and Italian, a sort of island in an ocean of Slavic nationalities. They are doubtless descended from the Romanized population of the outlying

A BULGARIAN GIRL IN NATIVE COSTUME

provinces of the old empire who in some sort have managed to preserve speech and national ideas through all the vicissitudes of barbarian and Moslem conquests. Roumanians are found scattered widely throughout other parts of the peninsula, as well as in contiguous provinces of Austria-Hungary, although their chief center is on the alluvial plains of the kingdom which now bears their name.

The Greeks, like others of these Balkan races, are found in considerable numbers outside their own land. They are an active commercial race, and live in all the coast cities of the Levant. There seems little room for doubt that in the turmoils and invasions, which for ages swept over the Greek peninsula, the population became more or less mixed in its race elements. Be that as it may, the persistence of language and of religious and social ideas has kept the people essentially Greek, as they certainly are Greek in their traditions and national ideals.

The Albanians, found mostly in the rough highlands north of Greece, are

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BULGARIAN SCHOOL TEACHERS ARRESTED AT MONASTIR

descended from the old Illyrian stock of those mountains, and have always preserved a rude independence. The Turks succeeded in reducing them to a more or less nominal subjection, but, safe in their rugged country, the Albanians have generally been a law to themselves. In religion some (perhaps seventy per cent) have embraced Islam, while others remain Christian, the men of a family often being of the former faith and the women of the latter. The Albanians, like the old Scotch Highlanders, are broken up into clans which maintain incessant feuds with one another, while all alike are accustomed to make predatory raids on the neighboring lowlands.

There was a time in the middle ages when the Servians established a flourishing empire, which, in the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries, seemed quite as likely to develop into one of the great nations of Europe as did any of the Teutonic lands. The Servians were Greek Catholics, and hence arose a political division between them and their kindred, the Croats, who, though of exactly the same Slavic stock as the Serbs, were Roman Catholics, and who largely for that reason ultimately became subjects of the king of Hungary. The hero of Servian history is the Emperor Stephen Dushan, who ascended the throne in 1333. He reduced Macedonia, Thessaly and Epirus to subjection, and made the Bulgarians tributary. His aims went far beyond that, as he dreamed of reigning at Constantinople itself. He indeed assumed the title of Emperor of the Romans, and it was while on the march for the imperial city of Constantine that his plans were ended by his sudden death, in 1355. But all these fair prospects of Servian power and glory were dissipated by the appearance of the Ottoman Turks in Europe. These vigorous and fanatical warriors crossed the Hellespont and soon overran all Thrace, making Adrianople the seat of a European empire. In 1389, on the fatal field of Kossovo, the Servian army was finally crushed and Servian liberty died. The Bulgarians, too, became subjects of the Turks, and in the end Turkish arms prevailed over the entire peninsula. Constantinople, the last fragment of the eastern Roman empire, fell in 1453. The Turkish inundation, indeed, flowed deep into Hungary and Germany. Vienna itself was besieged by Turkish armies as late as 1683, and the Black Sea was a Turkish lake, being surrounded by a wing of conquered territory. Thus it was the fate of the Balkan Slavs to be ground under the iron heel of Ottoman despotism, as the Russian Slavs, too, were under Mongol tyrants for long years. Little wonder that both became largely orientalized.

THE DESERTED MARKET-PLACE, MONASTIR

The Slav progress in the enlightenment which the centuries since the Renaissance have brought to western Europe has thus been slow enough. Slavs have been the barriers of Europe against Islam, and their sufferings are not yet ended.

The turn of the tide by which the Asiatic Turks are being swept from Europe dates back about two hundred years. The siege of Vienna failed, and by the end of the seventeenth century Germany and Hungary were free. The Russians meanwhile shook off the Mongol yoke, and gradually won the lands on the north shores of the Black Sea. In the

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Balkan peninsula a remnant of the old Servian empire preserved its independence practically entire in the rugged mountains of Montenegro. This tiny principality, only a hundred miles by eighty in extent, and now with a population of only 125,000—the Switzerland of the Balkans—repeatedly foiled Turkish armies of invasion. Reduced for a time to pay tribute, in 1703 they revolted against even this badge of subjection. As late as 1858 the sultan sent an army against Montenegro, but in the defiles of Grahovo it was cut to pieces, retreating with a loss of seven thousand men, while the mountaineers lost only forty-seven killed and sixty wounded.

war there has been some amelioration in the condition of the Balkan Christians. Thus gradually Roumania and Greece and Servia have emerged as independent states, usually through the intermediate stage of self-government as vassals of the sultan. But lands once won from Islam have rarely been lost again, never, indeed, save in 1878, when the shameful treaty of Berlin gave back Macedonia to slavery and thus paved the way for the crisis of 1903.

In 1876 the Serbs of Bosnia and Herzegovina broke into revolt against the intolerable Ottoman misgovernment, and there was a feeble rising in Bulgaria. These insurrections were easily quelled,

MAP OF THE BALKAN PENINSULA
Showing the boundaries proposed by the Treaty of San Stefano and those fixed by the Treaty of Berlin

The liberation of the rest of the peninsula, so far as it has gone, has proceeded by processes almost invariably similar. The subject Christians have risen against the Turks. Revolt has been extinguished in blood—and in shedding blood the Turk is ruthless. The horrible barbarities there inflicted have brought intervention by the Christian powers, Russia invariably taking the lead and repeatedly engaging the Ottoman state in hostilities. Six times since 1768 there has been war between Russia and Turkey, and at the end of each

but as a means to this end a horde of Turkish irregular troops were let loose in Bulgaria, and they committed such horrors of massacre and outrage as to arouse the indignant moral sense of Europe. Russia finally intervened, and the bloody Russo-Turkish war of 1877-78 followed. The Turks were defeated, Russian armies crossed the Danube and the Balkans, and encamped within sight of the minarets of Constantinople. The porte now came to terms, and in the treaty of San Stefano, signed in a little village

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CORPSES OF BULGARIANS DRAGGED THROUGH VILLAGES
The Turkish soldiers, after killing these peasants, dragged the bodies, tied to a cart, through the villages near Adrianople

on the shore of the Sea of Marmora, great rearrangements of Turkish territory were made. The independence of Montenegro was definitely recognized, with considerable accessions of territory. Servia also received a recognition of independence and additions of territory. Roumania was recognized as independent. Bulgaria was constituted "an autonomous tributary principality, with a Christian government and a national militia." The boundaries of Bulgaria were made to include a wide sweep of territory, reaching to Albania on the west and to the Ægean Sea on the south, including Salonika, thus cutting European Turkey in two and giving the new state an outlet on the Mediterranean. The new government of Bulgaria was to be supervised by Russia for two years. Thus freedom was provided for nearly all the subject Christian people in the peninsula. There were left to Turkey merely a strip of land about Constantinople and the mountains of Albania. Bulgaria no doubt in time would secure the same independence won by the northern peoples, while Bosnia and Herzegovina were to have a reformed government under the guarantee of the powers, which in turn would ultimately mean also independence in some form.

But now western Europe took alarm. It was believed by Great Britain that in fact the treaty of San Stefano would intrench Russia in the peninsula so securely that Constantinople itself would in time inevitably be occupied. The powers finally agreed on a European congress, which was held at Berlin in the summer, and which made the treaty which is essentially the basis of political power in the peninsula at the present time. The additions to the territory of Montenegro and Servia were reduced. Bosnia and Herzegovina were handed over to Austria-Hungary to administer, the sovereignty remaining nominally in the porte. The Greater Bulgaria of the San Stefano treaty was cut to pieces. That portion which lay between the Balkan range and the Danube was given the self-government under the sultan's suzerainty which the other treaty had granted to all. The portion south of the Balkans was constituted as a separate province—Eastern Roumelia—with a more limited autonomy than that of Bulgaria. The remainder, the large area to the west, bordering on the Ægean and on the Albanian mountains, was given back to the porte. The Russian armies, it was stipulated, were to leave the peninsula within a twelvemonth.

Thus the Russian grip on the peninsula was loosened; and, in fact, even the Slavs, whose freedom had been gained by Russian blood and treasure, were ungrateful enough to be shy of yielding to Russian influence. They were quite willing to avail themselves of Russian power against the Turk, but they had no notion of ever becoming subjects to the autocratic government of the Russian empire. But while the danger which Great Britain especially apprehended from Russian predominance in the vicinity of the straits was by the arrangements of the Berlin treaty at least postponed, there remained one fatal result: Greater Bulgaria was vivisected. To be sure the wholly artificial division between Bulgaria and Eastern Roumelia lasted only a few years. In 1885, the people of the two sections simply united. This was a flat violation of the treaty of 1878, but the risk of complications was so great that no power cared to intervene, and so the Bulgarians were permitted to have their own

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THE MOSQUE OF ST. SOPHIA, CONSTANTINOPLE

way. In the district relegated to Turkey, however, the conditions which precipitated revolt in all the rest of the peninsula have continued unchanged.

There is an irrepressible conflict between dominant Turk and subject Christian. It may be granted that the Turk is not so black as he is painted. It may be granted that the subject races are turbulent, are vindictive and cruel when victorious, even that their independent states have not warranted all the hopes with which they began their new life among the nations. Still the present situation in what remains of European Turkey is impossible. There is a radical incompatibility between the ideas of Orient and Occident, and sooner or later the final steps must be taken and Turkish authority eliminated from European soil.

The mutual jealousy among Greeks, Servians and Bulgarians is a thousand years old, and is as keen as ever. All are adherents of the oriental church. But each race claims a large share of the assets of bankrupt Turkey. Each claims a large interest in Macedonia. It is the vexed question of the settlement of these claims which makes the Macedonian problem peculiarly difficult. In the northern part lies old Servia, the seat of the empire of Stephen Dushan, of whose hills and valleys the Servian national poems are filled with story and song. Throughout all the vilayets the mass of agricultural peasants are Bulgarians, the same stolid stock which has survived all the brutalities of Turkish rule, which in 1885 scattered the Servian armies like chaff before the wind. The leading commercial towns are filled with busy Greek merchants, who love neither Serb nor Bulgar, but only their own Hellenic kingdom.

The next act in the Balkan drama must be the liberation of Macedonia. But what comes after—what the distribution of the rescued land, what share goes to Bulgaria, what to Servia, what, if any, to Greece, whether perhaps Bosnia may reach as far as Salonika, what becomes of the lawless Albanian mountaineers, and above all what shall be the fate of Constantinople—these are the questions which fill the foreign offices of the European powers with anxiety.

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THE OUTLOOK IN CHINA

BY

ARTHUR H. SMITH

AUTHOR OF "CHINA IN CONVULSION"; "CHINESE CHARACTERISTICS," ETC.

THERE is an important sense in which it may be said that nobody really knows exactly what the "outlook" in China is at any particular time, for the reason that so many of the factors contributing to the formation of an intelligent opinion are quite beyond the range of vision. In regard to some of them the trained judgment of those in western lands is, perhaps, as good as that of those in the Celestial empire nearer to the facts, but in regard to others a competent knowledge of the trend of events in China and some comprehension of the Chinese themselves are indispensable to forming just conceptions of what the situation actually is. For general purposes it may be said that if one knows the outlines of what relates to the court, the high officials, the people in general, and the adherents of the Christian churches, he is able to estimate the main features of the situation.

The whole world has had its attention attracted to the singular spectacle of a court which fled before the advent of the avenging powers, coming back sixteen months later in a blaze of triumph, not only without the loss of that "face" so dear to orientals, but with a prestige which antecedently would have seemed incredible. Few would have believed it possible that not long after that spectacular event the foreign ministers, their wives, and all the legation staff, would be on such intimate relations with the highest personages in the hitherto almost or quite invisible government of China, as to meet them frequently at receptions, exchange salutations and even presents, and would be able to chat familiarly with the inscrutable empress dowager, and hear her gently murmur in English: "How-tu-you-tu?" That the ultimate effect of this, if there is any effect at all, will be beneficial may be taken for granted, although there has been a great deal of superfluous criticism of the part taken in it by Mrs. Conger, the accomplished wife of the United States minister,

THE ROAD TO THE TOMBS OF THE EMPERORS OF THE MING DYNASTY
Stone animals marking the route, which runs northwest from Peking

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who has regarded the opportunity as one sent by Providence as truly as was deliverance from the siege, and who has conscientiously endeavored to make a wise use of these unique advantages.

On the whole the impression made upon the many who have thus seen the empress dowager at close range, is a tribute to her powers and her talents. Every one is captivated by the unfailing tact with which she instantly adjusts herself to every situation, and the gracious way in which she gently remarks that she *did* hear the guns during the dark days when the ministers and all other foreigners were likely to be exterminated, but she supposed that these were fired from within the legations against the people in Peking, and not by soldiers or Boxers against the ministers!

How much she really knows of the actual condition of her empire, it would be rash to conjecture, but as an expert opportunist perhaps it would be hardly possible to match her career in any court, ancient or modern, for the reason that she has all her life played for high stakes and against the whole world, and from her own point of view, which may be said to be the desire to keep what she has got, has invariably won.

It is important that amid more or less conflict of opinion on other points, there seems to be a general agreement that His Majesty, Kuang Hsü, must have lost whatever talents he once possessed, and that he is now a mere figurehead, who would be totally incapable of administering the empire, were he ever to be put in charge of it, a probability which appears to be constantly growing less. He has made bitter enemies, and the oriental readjustments which must accompany his accession to power would of themselves endanger the stability of the throne, even were he as able a ruler as his illustrious aunt. The court is a nest of intriguers, and a victim to the demoralizing horde of eunuchs which have more than once brought the empire to the verge of ruin. Of the inner details of these shameful proceedings, we are for the most part in total ignorance, but there is no doubt of their existence, nor of their important bearing upon current history.

Within a few months one of the most enigmatic figures in recent Chinese history has dropped out of life, without apparently leaving a ripple behind, and yet while he lived he was the most important man in the empire. This was Jung Lu, a Manchu, who from the lowest positions had shrewdly wormed himself upward till he had in himself aggrandized more high posts than had ever before been united in one individual, even in this empire of plural functions. It was Jung Lu who was in command of the army attacking the legation on the eastern side in 1900, yet by some means he succeeded in escaping the condemnation of others far less important than he. The current explanation is that while in nominal authority, he was unable to stem the irresistible tide, but did his best, and thus brought about the month of truce during the latter part of the siege, which has been so unaccountable to students of the events of the time.

Jung Lu was so powerful as one of the gateways to power in Peking that it is believed, and is not improbably true, that he was paid a sum of twenty thousand taels of silver by the present governor of Shantung on the assumption of his post, merely because, although duly appointed, he could not otherwise take it up. This incident—and whether it happens to be true or not is of no special importance—is a window through which one may see the springs of rule in China. Is it any wonder that it is universally believed that the same man, by a clause in the secret "Cassini convention," together with the late Li Hung Chang, was in receipt of a "salary" from the Russo-Chinese Bank (a periphrasis for the Russian government) of £50,000 per annum, as "director" of the Siberian Railway in Manchuria?

The empress dowager will be seventy years of age in 1904, but as ill luck has attended the previous decennial celebrations of her birthday, she is resolved this time at least to thwart fate by anticipating it a year, and hold it this coming autumn. Twenty years ago the French war broke out and stopped the festivities, and a decade later it was the Japanese war by which she was defeated. The amount of money squandered in these celebrations appals even the indurated Chinese. On a recent visit to the western tombs of the emperors of this dynasty,

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a railway was laid down expressly for the trip, at a total cost of many hundred thousand taels, and was then taken up again!

One of the most striking, most inexplicable, and most alarming symptoms of the condition of China to-day, is the absence of competent men to administer the highest posts of the empire. For some years the dearth of such persons has been attracting attention, and now that the rebellion, long raging in Kuangsi, has spread to Yunnan, and seems to be beyond the imperial power to subdue, the question is more and more pressing, who is to govern the land, supposing that the quarrels and aggressions of the powers leave anything to be governed? The death of Liu K'un-yi, a few months ago, one of the four able men who girdled the empire by means of the central provinces, and prevented the Boxer madness from spreading south and thus all over China, has called renewed attention to the lack of candidates to succeed him. The man who was finally chosen is practically unknown and untried. The able governor-general of the largest of the provinces, Ssuch'uan, who was sent there to deal with a dangerous outbreak of Boxer fanaticism two years after the original one was suppressed, did indeed put it down with a strong hand. But his whole career lasted less than a year, and he was then whirled away to Kuangtung, the province of which Canton is the capital, to deal with the rebellion in that part of China, leaving his recent post vacant. The man now appointed to it, a Manchu, was strongly anti-foreign in 1900, and was removed to Manchuria on complaint of the foreign ministers, but by the Chinese government his transfer was meant as an honor. How he will deal with the heavy responsibilities in the important position to which he has now been sent, is a serious problem. It seemed at the time that the leading powers, who are led (or perhaps driven) more and more to interfere in the domestic affairs of the empire with a view to the safety of their own nationals, would certainly protest against the appointment, but this does not seem to be the case. It is worthy of mention that the governor-general now sent to Canton, according to time-honored Chinese theory and practice ought not to hold that post, as he is himself a native of the province of Kuangsi now put under his control. The violation of well-established usage shows the gravity of the crisis.

There is no doubt that Yuan Shih-k'ai, the present governor-general of the metropolitan province of Chihli, is one of the ablest men whom foreigners have met in China. He is indeed far more like an occidental than a Chinese, in his celerity of mental action, grasp of a situation, breadth of view, and readiness to undertake everything all at once. But there are limits to the versatility of the human mind, even in China, and there are not wanting signs that Yuan has undertaken too many and too varied tasks.

There is at present a great depression of trade both at Tientsin and in Peking, which is alleged to be mainly due to unhappy and ill-judged interference with well-recognized customs on the part of Governor-General Yuan. The consequences, at all events, threaten to be most serious. Yuan is constantly impeached by some of the "Censors" on a great variety of counts, for, as Doctor Johnson observed: "he that has much to do will do some things wrong, and of that wrong he must suffer the penalty." But he is too valuable to the throne to be transferred elsewhere, and besides he has at his command a considerable and an increasing army of well-paid and well-disciplined troops, and the rare officials in China of whom this is true must be reckoned with by the government. There has never been any question that Yuan, like all Chinese in authority, is quite unscrupulous, and, to gain his ends, would hesitate at nothing. It is a common remark among foreigners that he is the coming man in China, and there can be little or no doubt that if the throne of the central empire should be occupied by a Chinese, Yuan Shih-k'ai is at present the only possible candidate.

It is a point of capital importance that since the pressure of the foreign indemnities began to be felt, all the officials, high and low, have made it a point of honor to take all the silver they can lay their hands upon, for the reason that the imperial demands are really exacting, and while it rains puddings it is best to hold up, not one dish, but all that are to be

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FANG SHAN, A MINERAL SPRING NEAR PEKING

had. It is very convenient for a mandarin to be able to shift the onus of an exorbitant and an unpopular levy on the "foreign war tax," by which the official at once exonerates himself, and excites a popular animosity against the Ocean Men, which he himself shares.

The incidence of these demands is as wide as the activities of the people, and many of them are altogether new to the experience of this generation. So far as foreigners know it, China has always been a relatively lightly taxed land, and houses, boats, carts, with many forms of merchandise in inland transit, have paid nothing. All this is now revolutionized. At Tientsin, for example, where the (foreign and military) Provisional Government, with few sources of income, laid a license tax on boats of all descriptions, the Chinese authorities have retained the tax, but instead of devoting the money as before to public uses only, it goes—somewhere.

In the rural districts best known to the writer, the local crops, the little oil mills, and almost the entire range of productions have always been as free and as untrammeled as in the United States. But within a year yamen-runners have begun to appear, who demand a tax on the sale of all the peanuts, which are raised in large quantities to be exported to foreign lands presumptively to be made into "olive oil." If the owner of a small mill hesitates to pay, his animal is taken out of his cart and carried off, and the official cares nothing about it so long as he gets his percentage. It is, indeed, impossible for the ordinary Chinese to decide what taxes are legitimate and what not, since the magistrates put out false proclamations which the people refuse to believe, asserting that an "imperial edict" has arrived authorizing or ordering this or that. It is always laid to the "foreign indemnity," which is thus increasingly made a stench in the nostrils of the people at large, and the way is prepared for organized resistance to the growing impositions. Such resistance is taking place all the time, here, there, and elsewhere, but on a small and uncoördinated scale. Appeals to the higher yamens would naturally suggest themselves as a test of the validity of the reality of the power to levy any particular tax, but such appeals are difficult, dangerous, expensive and useless.

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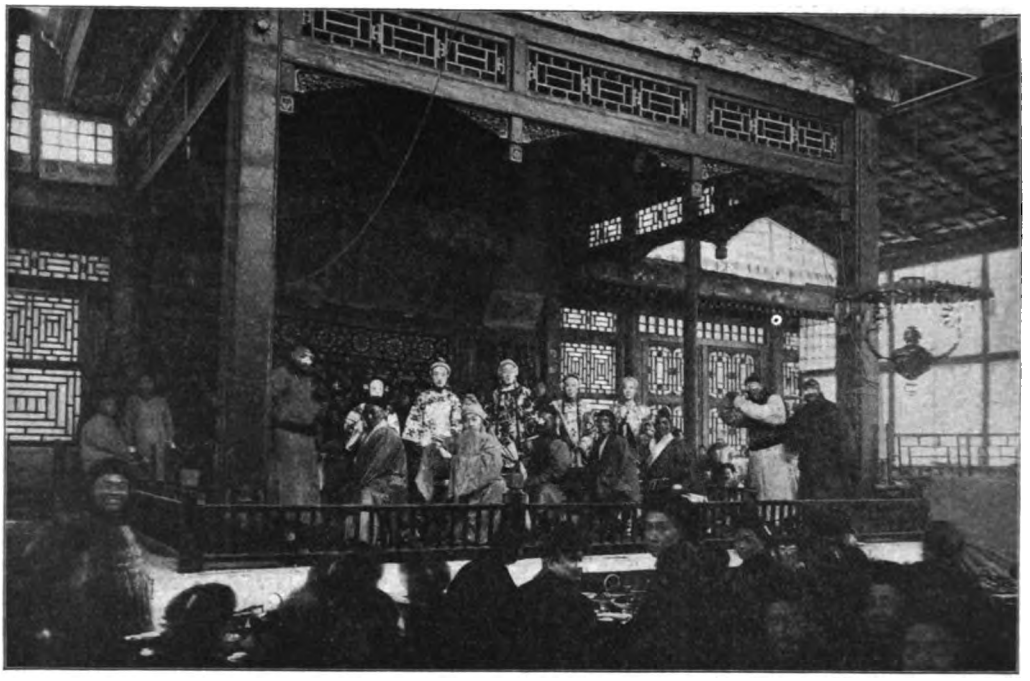

INTERIOR OF A CHINESE THEATER

Were the combinations against the new taxes widely united with solid and unbroken front, a crisis would soon be reached. But one of the puzzles of the Chinese is their unrivaled talent for combination on a small scale, when their cohesion rather resembles that of chemical atoms than the aggregation of human units, side by side with a similar incapacity for the like combinations on a large scale, which are invariably neutralized by the universal selfishness and the all pervading suspiciousness of the Chinese character.

Of the real history of the past decades it is not to be supposed that the mass of the Chinese people know anything. The fortunes of the alien Tartar dynasty are nothing to them, who have been for ages and by heredity accustomed to let the persons charged with navigating the ship of state attend to their nautical affairs, while the people on their part attend to theirs. The notion that these same navigators may possibly sink the craft altogether has never entered the popular conception, nor if it had would they know what to do about it.

The Christian churches are an important factor in any estimate of the present and future of China, not, as in Japan, so much because of their greater intelligence relatively to their numbers, as because they are identified with that "following of foreigners" which has come to be a war-cry of the unintelligent and the evil intentioned. There are those who seem to think it strange that there is no general turning to Christianity on the part of the Chinese, but a moment's reflection would show that nothing of the sort is in reason to be expected at this time. While the political situation is so clouded it is much that the Christian church is able to hold its own. Yet it is doing much more than that, and is winning its way where it was before unknown or despised.

It is an unfortunate concomitant of the granting by Chinese officials of indemnities to the native Christians that so many bad passions have been nourished into life, especially avarice, hatred, and the love of revenge, and this despite the most earnest efforts of the foreign missionaries to minimize the evil. Litigiousness is one of the most prominent traits in the Chinese character, and among Christians it has never come to the front as within the past three years. Nearly all foreigners have been overrun with pleadings from Chinese to help them in their lawsuits, but in the case of the Christians

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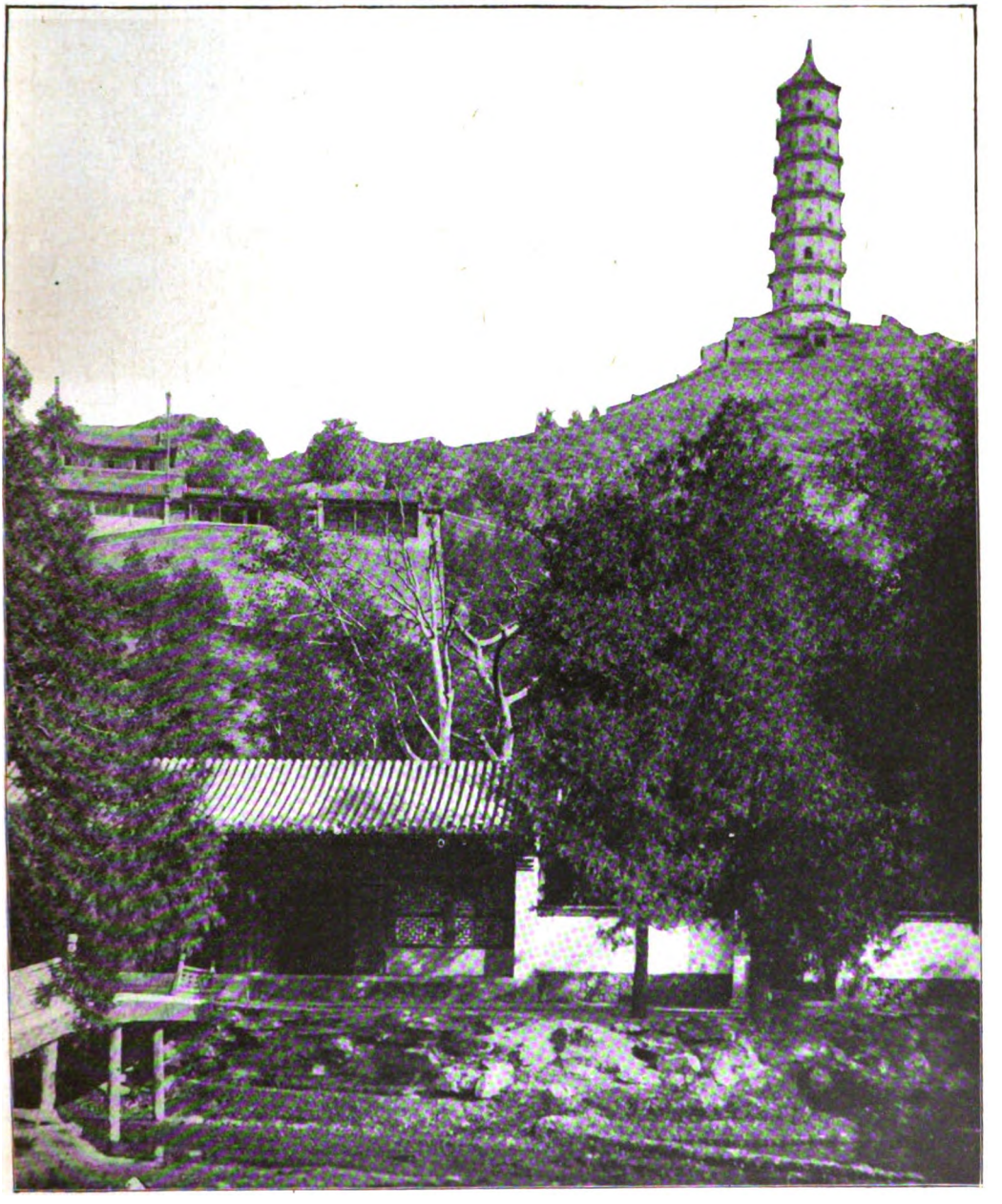
this has proved a fearful snare, against which unaided they are as helpless as land-birds caught in a storm at sea. This is, however, but a passing phase of the introduction of Christianity, and if it is rightly met, the Protestant churches at least may be expected largely to outgrow it, as they are outgrowing and have outgrown other deeply rooted survivals of the ante-Christian ages.

There is no doubt that in the empire as a whole the lives and property of foreigners are at present safer than they were at any time before the Boxer outbreak. This is not due to the regulations and conditions made when the protocol of peace



THE JADE SPRINGS MOUNTAIN PAGODA, WEST OF PEKING

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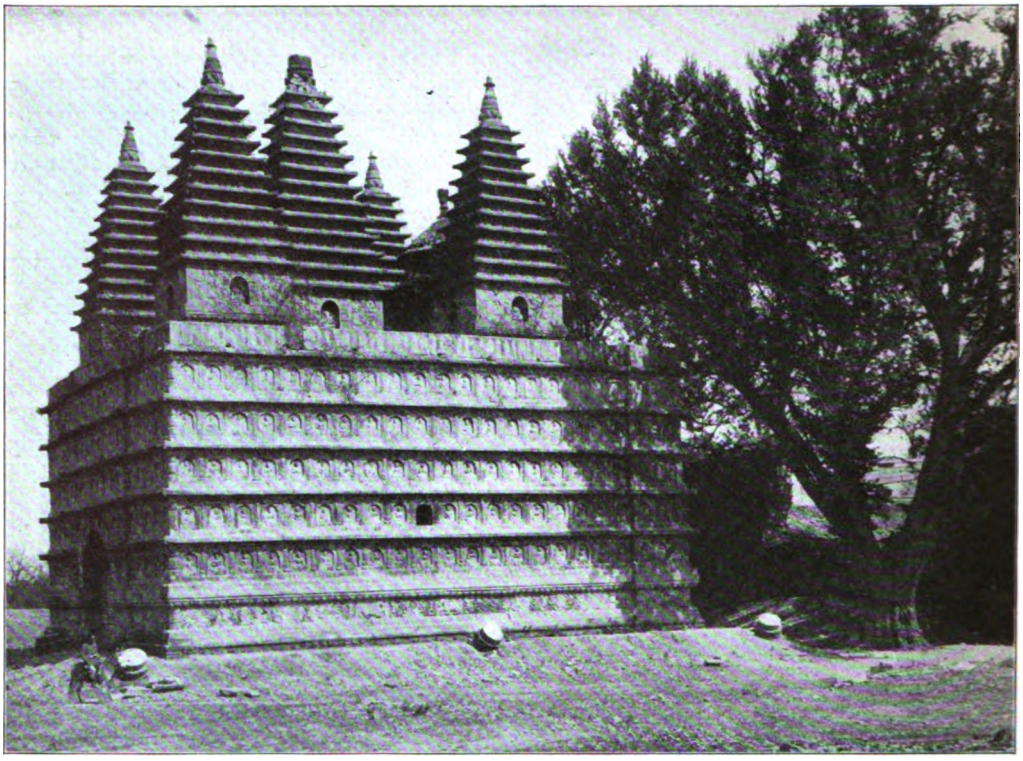

PINNACLE OF THE AZURE CLOUD MONASTERY, WEST OF PEKING

was signed, so much as to greater alertness of the foreign ministers and of the foreigners in China themselves when there are any signs that the Chinese officials are growing careless and remiss in their duties. The case which occurred in the province of Hunan a year ago, where a military official was actually beheaded, because he had failed to protect two foreigners (missionaries) when he should have protected them, made a profound impression thoughout China, and serves as a warning against the repetition of such conduct. Doubtless the Chinese did not expect the agreement that officials should be literally responsible, as they have always been in theory, to be definitely enforced. When it is so enforced, however, while there is a feeling of indignation among many Chinese in public employ that such punishment should be possible, there is also a strong desire to escape the charge of being liable to it.

The fact that several new railways are either actually under construction, or likely to be so in the immediate future, adds to the importance of this change of attitude. It is not long since a party of American engineers in the Kuangtung province were set upon by a mob instigated by ruffians who told them that their houses and lands would be taken from them by the new "fire-wheel cart road," and that unknown disasters would ensue. The first that outsiders knew of it was the sight of fragments of surveying instruments floating down the river. The disturbance was quelled and no lives were lost, but the results might have been most serious. From the Chinese point of view the attack in defense of altars and homes was most natural. Like disturbances may be expected wherever radical innovations of this sort are actively promoted. The number and enterprise of the various powerful syndicates which have now resumed their operations in exploiting China, not only by railways, but by the more formidable mining undertakings, is large and tends to increase. Since China is therefore to be opened for the benefit of the West, it is desirable that the inevitable process should be accomplished with as little loss of life as possible.

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THE TWO-MINUTE TROTTING HORSE

BY

JOHN L. HERVEY

EDITOR OF "THE HORSE REVIEW"

OF all forms of sport widely popular in America, none is so distinctively American as that of harness racing. In some European countries, notably Russia and Austria, it has of late years acquired a considerable foothold, but on this side of the Atlantic it has been one of the great popular diversions for a century, and the unremitting care and study and unstinted wealth which have been lavished during this period upon the culture and development of the trotter have achieved a magnificent result. For the American light-harness horse, in speed, beauty and utility, is confessedly without a rival in the world to-day. His position is, in fact, unique. The thoroughbred, or running horse, is almost purely a sporting toy; divorced from the racecourse, he is of little worth; whereas, the trotter is emphatically the everyday horse of the people.

Records of trotting speed began to be preserved early in the last century. At Harlem, N. Y., in June, 1806, a horse called Yankee trotted a mile in 2:59, and from that day the question of the trotter's speed limit and the gradual reduction of the trotting record have been of absorbing interest. By 1845 Lady Suffolk had trotted in 2:29½, a reduction of a half-minute. Fourteen years later, Flora Temple trotted in 2:19¾. In 1867, Dexter reduced this to 2:17¼, and in 1874, Goldsmith Maid, the first trotter to get below 2:15, placed the mark at 2:14. With each reduction, each subsequent one became, as a logical sequence, a task of increased difficulties, and it was not until 1884 that 2:10 was first beaten by Maud S. From her day, the record has gradually fallen, but very slowly, oftentimes by but a fraction of a second in a period of several years. During this time discussion as to the ultimate rate of trotting speed has been rife, and particularly has speculation busied itself as to the possibility of a mile ever being trotted in two minutes. The question has not only been debated by the horse-loving public, but has attracted scientific attention. Some years ago, two distinguished mathematicians "figured it out" to the best of their abilities. One, a professor in Yale College, declared the feat an impossibility. The other, a western man, declared that the two-minute trotter would appear before 1905. The evidence then available was all in favor of the first contention, but the second has proved the correct one: 1903 has brought the two-minute trotter—Lou Dillon, most marvelous of her kind, who has achieved the so-called impossible and demolished theories that were believed impregnable.

Every fact in connection with Lou Dillon is remarkable. She is an exquisitely beautiful chestnut mare, now five years old, and was bred and raised in California, the birthplace of many other equine record-breakers. Her pedigree can be traced, in numerous lines, for two centuries or more, and she is inbred five times to the famous sire Rysdyk's Hambletonian (foaled 1849, died 1876), the "great fountainhead of trotting speed." Lou Dillon was broken as a yearling, and her speed slightly developed as a two and three year old. Last year, at the age of four, she was placed in the hands of one of the most successful trotting trainers, Millard F. Sanders. She was then of wonderful promise for speed, but very wayward, high-tempered and headstrong. By careful handling and judicious humoring of her peculiarities, which were none of them vicious, Sanders soon had her well under control, and her speed began to develop with the most astonishing rapidity. In October, she trotted a trial mile in 2:08¼, and her trainer then declared that he would one day drive her in two minutes.

Last winter, one of her breeders and owners—the Messrs. Pierce, of Santa Rosa, Cal.—died, and she was sold by the surviving one to Mr. C. K. G. Billings, of Chicago, for $12,500. Mr. Billings is

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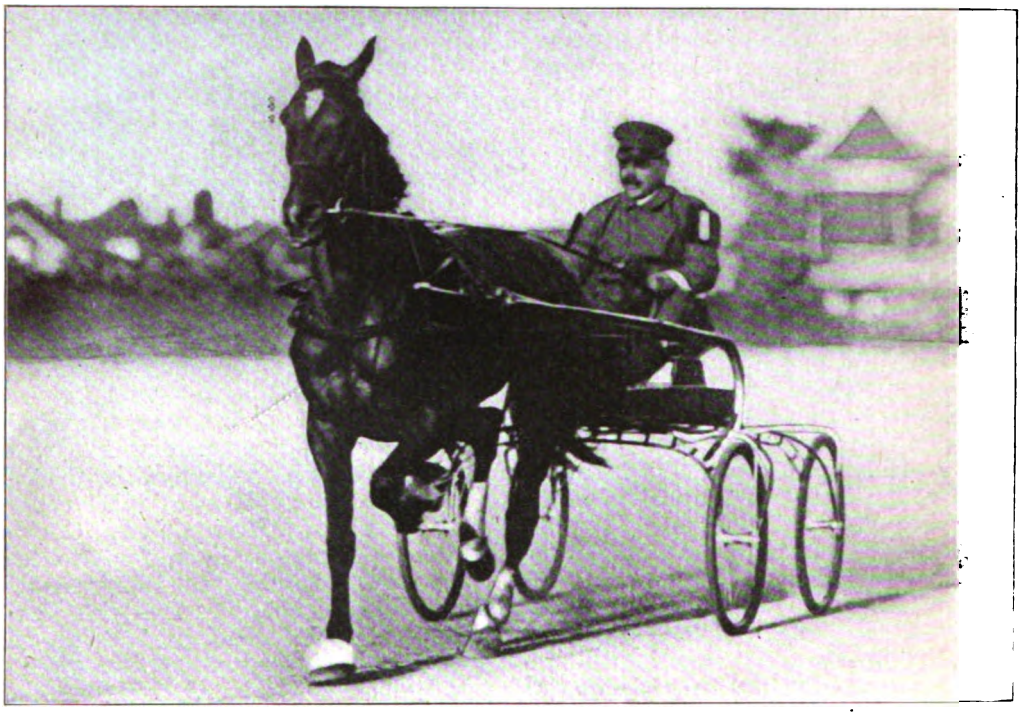
the most prominent figure in the trotting world. He inherited a love for the trotter from his father, who, by a curious coincidence, once owned Princess, a famous trotting mare half a century ago. Princess produced one foal, the stallion Happy Medium, and Happy Medium is Lou Dillon's maternal great-grandsire. Mr. Billings' great wealth has enabled him to gratify his taste for trotting horses as he pleased, and he is generally regarded as the successor of the late Robert Bonner, the owner of Dexter and Maud S., as the most disinterested of the patrons of trotting as a pure sport. Mr. Billings, at the time of his purchase of Lou Dillon, already possessed an unequaled collection of harness horses of extreme speed, not one of which he has ever allowed to be raced for money. He is himself an amateur reinsman of finished skill, and his horses are bought and kept solely for the personal pleasure he finds in driving them.

Recognizing, however, the extraordinary promise of Lou Dillon, he determined to leave her in the hands of her trainer and have her speed developed by him to its uttermost. Her mile in two minutes, trotted at Readville, Massachusetts, near Boston, August 24, in which she beat the best previous trotting record, made by Cresceus, in 1901, by two and one-quarter seconds, eclipsed all his most sanguine expectations, and has drawn the attention of horse-lovers the world over to this five-year-old mare, who has never in her life been trotted for anything but pure glory and her owner's pleasure.



LOU DILLON, HER OWNER, MR. C. K. G. BILLINGS, DRIVING

Since her mile in 2:00, Mr. Billings has himself driven Lou Dillon a mile to four-wheeled wagon in 2:04½, which is a world's record. On September 11, at Cleveland, Ohio, she was hitched to an old-style high-wheeled sulky, without modern pneumatic tires, and sent against the famous record of Maud S., made in 1885, so hitched. This Lou Dillon completely obliterated by finishing the mile in 2:05. It is the universal opinion of trotting connoisseurs that she will cover a mile in less than two minutes in the near future.

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THE DISFRANCHISEMENT OF THE NEGRO

BY

CHARLES B. AYCOCK

GOVERNOR OF NORTH CAROLINA

MUCH criticism has within the last few years been indulged in by people of the North upon the so-called disfranchising amendments to the constitutions of several of the southern states. I shall attempt no defence of these amendments, but shall simply state briefly what the amendment in North Carolina is and what it means.

The constitution of North Carolina as it now reads provides as follows:

> Every person presenting himself for registration shall be able to read and write any section of the constitution in the English language; and before he shall be entitled to vote, he shall have paid on or before the first day of May of the year in which he proposes to vote, his poll tax for the previous year as prescribed by article 5, section I, of the constitution. But no male person, who was, on January 1, 1867, or at any time prior thereto, entitled to vote under the laws of any state in the United States, wherein he then resided, and no lineal descendant of any such person shall be denied the right to register and vote at any election in this state by reason of his failure to possess the educational qualifications herein prescribed: *Provided,* he shall have registered in accordance with the terms of this section prior to December 1, 1908.

This provision of the constitution eliminates from the voting population a great number of negroes, while preserving the privilege of all the native born whites to vote. Those coming of age after 1908, white and black alike, are disfranchised unless they can read and write.

After the adoption of the thirteenth, fourteenth and fifteenth amendments to the constitution of the United States the southern states endeavored to secure good government out of the conditions which had been forced upon them. Speaking for North Carolina I know that an honest, persistent effort was made to obtain safe government without resorting to the elimination of negro suffrage. The effort was a failure. We sought in vain to make the theory of universal suffrage work out good government and private virtue. We found by actual trial that it could not be done. It could not be done because, as Senator Cullom wisely says in his report of the Hawaiian Commission. "The American idea of universal suffrage presupposes that the body of citizens who are to exercise it in a free and independent manner have, by inheritance or education, such knowledge and appreciation

CHARLES B. AYCOCK

of the responsibilities of free suffrage and of a full participation in the sovereignty of the country as to be able to maintain a republican form of government."

The negroes of this state have not this knowledge either by inheritance or education; as a consequence they have been easily lead to form combinations with a small minority of white men and bring to the state intolerable government. Government can never be better than the party responsible for it. If those in authority give to any state as good government as is demanded by a majority of the party responsible for government, we have in a republic almost a perfect government. If the people behind those in authority are weak, ignorant, readily led,

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easily deceived, government must needs be bad. This is so in theory and it turns out to be true in practice. No set of men in any southern state elected to office by the suffrage of negroes have ever yet been able to administer government well. It matters little what their purposes may be, or how high their ideals may stand, they can not govern well for the want of an intelligent, virtuous public opinion behind them. In 1896 the negroes of North Carolina, in combination with a small minority of her white people, secured the state government, legislative, executive and judicial. After that government had been in force for four years, in a public address in this state I used this language:

> We had a white man for governor in 1898, when negroes became intolerably insolent; when ladies were insulted on the public streets; when burglary in our chief city became an every night occurrence; when "sleep lay down armed and the villainous center-bits ground on the wakeful ear in the hush of the moonless nights"; when more guns and pistols were sold in the state than had been in the twenty preceding years; when lawlessness walked the state like a pestilence, and the governor and our two senators were afraid to speak in a city of twenty-five thousand inhabitants. It is the negro behind the officer, and not the officer only that constitutes negro government.

I predicted then that with the disfranchisement of the ignorant negro, peace would be restored to the state and freedom of speech become a common possession of our people. Within less than two years after the elimination of the negro from suffrage one of the senators, who was afraid to speak in Wilmington in 1898, held a joint discussion in that city with a political opponent, receiving not only respectful attention but frequent applause from men who would not have permitted him to speak in 1898.

Less than twenty thousand negroes now vote in this state. There are perhaps one hundred and twenty thousand male adult negroes in the state. The number who can vote will increase with the years, but the increase will be gradual and will be founded on intelligence. Each negro who comes to the ballot will feel that he has won his right to vote by preparation for it, and will set value on the suffrage. He will use it more wisely than his father did. Already those who can vote are beginning to exercise the suffrage with more freedom. The intelligent and virtuous among the negroes when all could vote were afraid to separate themselves from the great mass of the negroes, and in consequence they all voted one way. It made no difference what the question presented was, if the party to which the negro belonged espoused one side, every negro felt compelled for fear of social ostracism and out of a sense of loyalty to his race to take his party's side. Instead of the intelligent and virtuous among them being leaders they were driven by their more ignorant and more numerous fellows into the support of measures which their judgments and consciences disapproved. Now only the most intelligent negroes can vote. As their numbers increase they will develop leaders among themselves, holding different views on public questions, and will undoubtedly at the polls more nearly reflect these views than they have ever done in the past.

In the meantime no negro is denied any civil right in this state. The white people realizing the necessity for restricting the suffrage have felt it incumbent upon them to safeguard more carefully than ever the right of the negro in every other respect. In assuming the office of governor of the state I used the following language:

> The white people owe a high duty to the negro. It was necessary to the safety of the state to base suffrage on capacity to exercise it wisely. This results in excluding a great number of negroes from the ballot, but their right to life, liberty, property and justice must be even more carefully safeguarded than ever. It is true that a superior race can not submit to the rule of a weaker race without injury; it is also true in the long years of God that the strong can not oppress the weak without destruction. I said on April 11, 1900, and I now repeat it as a deep conviction, that "universal justice is the perpetual decree of Almighty God, and we are entrusted with power not for our good alone, but for the negro as well. We hold our title to power by tenure of service to God, and if we fail to administer equal and exact justice to the negro whom we deprive of suffrage, we shall in the fullness of time lose power ourselves, for we must know that the God who is love trusts no people with authority for the purpose of enabling them to do injustice to the weak."

This language expresses the views of the white people of this state. When we come to examine the legislation of the state we shall find this statement within the facts. The negroes pay but little of the taxes for the conduct of the public schools, and yet our laws provide and

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carry into effect the public school system which secures equal facilities for the negroes with those provided for the whites. At the last session of the legislature a bill was introduced to change this provision and to divide the school fund among the races in proportion to the amount paid by each race. A sense of fairness on the part of the whites prevented this bill from ever reaching a single hearing in the legislative body in which it was introduced. Speaking for the dominant party and for the white people I said in my message to the legislature of 1903:

> No reason can be given for dividing the school fund according to the proportion paid by each race which would not equally apply to a division of the taxes paid by each race on every other subject. Education is a governmental function. The right to collect taxes for the purpose is based on the duty of the state to educate its citizens. The care of the insane is no more the duty of the state than education, and if we divide the school fund according to the races we should also divide the fund for the maintenance of the hospitals for the insane in the same fashion. . . . The amendment proposed is unjust, unwise and unconstitutional. It would wrong both races, would bring our state into the condemnation of a just public opinion elsewhere, and would mark us as a people who have turned backward. The State of North Carolina has heretofore enjoyed the distinction of being first in those things which look to a larger liberty and a consequent higher development of her people. Let us not seek to be the first state in the union to make the weak man helpless. This would be a leadership which could bring us no honor but much shame.

In view of the fact that the legislature took the view which was presented in my message, and continued to provide school facilities for the education of the negro equal to those of the white, it may be safely assumed by those in other states who take such deep interest in our affairs that no injustice will be done the negro. Indeed, we are more than fair to him. We have provided for the insane of the negro race a hospital capable of caring for every insane negro in the state, while there are a few hundred insane of the white race for whom provision has not been made. In our courts of justice a practice of more than twenty years at the bar enables me to declare with emphasis that the negro can and does secure a fair trial. I have appeared for hundreds of them in criminal indictments and in civil suits, and I have yet to find a ground for complaint against our courts for failure to act fairly toward the negro. Indeed, in civil suits between whites and negroes the juries incline to favor the negro. If the case presents the slightest element of oppression on the part of the white man toward the negro, the verdict is almost certain to be in favor of the negro. There is a sense of fairness among our white people which causes them to look with contempt upon the white man who seeks to overreach the negro in a business matter.

The problem of securing peace between two races living side by side with equal civil rights pursuing their separate ends under one government is fraught with difficulty. It is one which requires much wisdom, long time and abiding patience to solve aright. The white men of this state have set themselves to the task of solving it, and they have gone about it in the right fashion. They are educating to the utmost of their ability the children of both races, and doing for the hour the thing that appears to them to be just, leaving the problems which may arise hereafter to be solved by a better trained people. Intelligent sympathy in our task from those who live elsewhere will help us, but harsh, ignorant and unreasoning criticism can not aid us. We appreciate the interest which others take in us, but we realize that the burden is our own and we shall bear it as best we may. We have taken the ballot from the negro in no spirit of hostility to him. It is necessary in our present condition for the whites to control the government in these southern states, and it is better that the whites should control it under the forms of law rather than against them. That they will control is certain.

Massachusetts has her problem and provides for it in her constitution. She, too, amended her constitution and put in it this provision:

> No person shall have the right to vote, or be eligible to office under the constitution of this commonwealth, who shall not be able to read the constitution in the English language, and write his name: *provided, however,* that the provisions of this amendment shall not apply to any person prevented by a physical disability from complying with its requisitions, nor to any persons who shall be sixty years of age or upwards at the time this amendment shall take effect.

Her amendment was aimed at the foreigner. Vermont has her difficulties, and

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she, too, provides for it through her constitution.

> Every man of the full age of twenty-one years, having resided in this state for the space of one whole year next before the election of representatives, *and is of a quiet and peaceable behavior,* and will take the following oath or affirmation, shall be entitled to all the privileges of a freeman of this state.

The United States has her difficulties, and has provided for a restricted suffrage in Hawaii. Senator Spooner in his defence of the government's Philippine policy declares that "the right of self-government presupposes the capacity for self-government." It thus appears that the states separately and the United States as a whole have problems which must make us charitable one toward another. To-day the South is at peace; her industrial progress is marked and steady; her government is strong enough to control the mighty, and gentle enough to uphold the weak. "Let us have peace."

THE EVOLUTION OF WOMEN'S CLUBS

BY

ELLEN M. HENROTIN

PRESIDENT OF THE CHICAGO WOMAN'S CLUB

THE women's clubs of to-day differ entirely, both in their philosophical basis and their practical work, from those first organized. The present clubs, especially those which are preceded by the name of a city or a town, as The Denver Woman's Club, The Chicago Woman's Club, The Louisville Woman's Club, etc., are practically civic institutions and represent the activities which women either inaugurate or in which they participate on civic, social and intellectual lines. These clubs are, in a measure, the feminine expression of the great economic and social forces which are now dominant in society—those of organization and of correlation.

The first clubs organized by women were literary and social in character, and, while they clearly demonstrated the awakening interest of women in matters outside their own homes, they were, nevertheless, formed on very conservative lines, being devoted chiefly to literary or art study combined with some social features. The New England Woman's Club, of Boston, and Sorosis, of New York, both claim the honor of having been the first organized; they were, and have remained, what are known as literary clubs, or clubs for self culture. This form of organization has been imitated all over the country; in fact, it is not too much to say that nearly all women's clubs commenced in this way, as it precludes all possibility of political or religious action, a very important matter in any organization whose membership represents all shades of religious beliefs and political convictions.

These clubs for self culture performed a valuable service for the localities in which they were organized, as well as for their members, by cultivating the community spirit, which they did by breaking up the exclusive social and religious sets in which women are prone to form, and thus enlarging their sympathies and their outlook in social life. They also trained their members to speak in public and to observe parliamentary procedure. Above all, they furnished what may be called post-graduate courses in literature, art and science to women who had their own homes to superintend, and the clubs did this at a time when university extension lectures were unknown in this country. In a word, they were one of the impelling forces which have created the wave of popular demand for democratic education which has swept over the United States during the last ten or fifteen years.

Slowly but surely the clubs were aroused to a sense of their civic responsibility, and the first work in which the members would all unite was education. Thus in most of the literary clubs a department or a committee on education was formed. The work of these committees gradually awakened the interest of all the members, and the practica result was evinced in founding and su

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porting free kindergartens, in establishing scholarships in art and technical schools, in fostering manual training, in supporting vacation schools and playgrounds, in improving sanitary conditions of the schoolrooms, in aiding the introduction of art into the public schools. In fact, the encouragement which all these movements have received, and which may be summed up in the words "school extension," has been fostered by the clubs and in many cases entirely supported by them.

It is easy to enter public service through the doors of education, and even more so when the wide spread interest aroused in educational questions naturally led the clubs into considering the subject of education as related to dependent, defective and delinquent children. From their efforts in this direction have resulted the forming of many good laws, both municipal and state. The juvenile court law of Illinois is a case in point, and eleven other states have passed similar laws, the clubs raising the money to pay the salaries of probation officers, and in many ways helping by financial as well as moral support to aid in enforcing the laws.

All public interests and all public questions now command the attention of the numerous clubs. So well recognized is this fact that the influence of the prominent clubs of any city or locality is always solicited when any reform or public movement is to be inaugurated.

Sociological questions have of late years excited great interest in these organizations, especially those which affect the part taken by women and children in factory or mercantile life. The investigations which have been conducted by them have shown how hard were the conditions under which women and children were working and the need of associate help to befriend them and better these conditions. Women in the labor market are unorganized and lack the courage which is given and received by a united effort. Children are often sent out to work by necessitous or greedy parents, and, in either case, are the victims of social conditions or personal greed, and so need protection. The greatest interest in the laws which regulate the age, hours and conditions of labor of children has been aroused by the study and consequent investigation conducted by clubs and has resulted in much wise legislative action.

MRS. LUCY C. FLOWER
Ex-president of Chicago Woman's Club; prominent in social and moral reforms

The various activities of these organizations increased so rapidly that a natural subdivision of interests took place, which resulted in the formation of the department club, which is now the usual form under which clubs are organized. There are generally six departments: education, art and literature, science and philosophy, philanthropy, social science or reform, and household economics. The names given to the departments or committees may be different, but the lines of work can be easily grouped under one of the above heads.

In some of the instances the clubs own their own homes. This is especially true of the west; the Denver Woman's Club, the Salt Lake City Woman's Club, the Wisconsin Woman's Club, etc., have their own clubhouse, which home is in many cases the center of the activities of women on civic, economic and social lines. The eastern clubs have not been so ambitious to own property, though the New Century, of Philadelphia, the New Century, of Utica, and the New Century, of Wilmington, own beautiful homes which have been successfully managed both

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financially and for the comfort of the members.

The club movement, as it is popularly known, has permeated all sorts and conditions of women. Of late years some have been organized, as are men's clubs, with bedrooms, luncheon and dining-rooms, with reception-rooms that the members may engage for private entertainments. These clubs are equipped with a full corps of servants and the entertainment furnished is at the lowest possible

MRS. ELECTA N. L. WALTON
Of West Newton, Mass. Prominent in club work in Massachusetts

cost. The Acorn, of Philadelphia; the Mayflower, of Boston, and the Athletic Club, of Chicago, are illustrations of this style of club. In no woman's club is liquor sold or served; this constitutes the only distinction between men's and women's clubs of this class.

The Chicago Business Woman's Club is perhaps the club which is organized on the most advanced lines, as it is managed by business women for their own comfort and to meet their needs. It is situated in the heart of the business of the city, and occupies three floors—second, third and fourth. The membership consists of professional and business women, whose work is in the center of the city. The membership is about five hundred; the annual due is $10. On the first floor are the reading-rooms, office and gymnasium, which is also the audience-room. On the second are the small parlors and bedrooms, bathrooms, etc. On the third are the dining-rooms and kitchen. Two of the dining-rooms are small private rooms which the members are at liberty to engage for their personal entertaining. A simple breakfast is served to those who reside in the house; luncheon and dinner are served every day except Sunday, on which day there is no demand for meals.

The club conducts various literary, educational and practical activities, as classes in the modern languages, history, sociology, etc. The gymnasium and dancing classes are always full, as professional and business women feel the need of active exercise. The club gives banquets and dancing parties and the most distinguished men of the city have spoken at the former. Men are admitted to the reception and dining-rooms as guests of the members, and quite a number will often be seen taking luncheon or dinner at the club. The club is affiliated with a school of stenography and bookkeeping and an employment bureau, and also coöperates with the Chicago Woman's Club in carrying on the Sunday Open Door, which are held during the winter months in the room of the former, to which all members and non-members are welcome.

This club meets the demands of a class of business women who earn good salaries and demand the comfort and quiet which only a private club can give to its members. To its founder, Miss Gertrude Beeks, and to Miss Bartelme, the present president, is due the credit for the successful manner in which this truly difficult undertaking has been carried on, as it required both great financial and executive ability.

Other cities are following this example and are organizing business women's clubs. There are such clubs now in New York, Buffalo, Detroit, Denver, Minneapolis, etc., but none have attained the dimensions and influence of the Chicago club. The clubs are joined together by a society known as the National Association of Business Women. The National Association has held several conventions, the last one at Buffalo during the exposition

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About fifteen years ago several movements were inaugurated to better the social conditions of working girls, of which the most successful was the club movement. The societies of the various churches had pointed the way toward this form of organization but the field was a wide one and still remains practically uncovered. In forming clubs among working women and girls the principles of coöperation, self-government and self-reliance were strongly emphasized, and while the leaders of the clubs, as the president and treasurer, are found, in most cases, among women not dependent upon their own earnings for support, there are nevertheless a surprising number of working women actively engaged in their management. The names selected by the members for their clubs are often very descriptive of their literary or artistic tastes. At the first convention held in New York, in 1890, the following clubs reported: "Lend-a-Hand," "Clover," "Enterprise," "Friendly Workers," "Merry Workers," etc. The majority of the girls work in factories and shops; a very few have been engaged in household service.

These clubs are intended for the educational and social welfare of their members, but they have aided various movements which have as their purpose the bettering of the conditions of working women and children, as the Consumers' League, the early-closing movement, etc. These girls' clubs are organized into an association known as the National League of Women Workers. The secretary reports having made, during the season of 1902-03, one hundred and two visits to league clubs. There are four state leagues: New York, Massachusetts, Virginia and Connecticut. The clubs of working girls in the west and middle west have, in most cases joined the state federations of women's clubs rather than form a separate state association.

There are also factory clubs: the Century Club of the National Cash Register Company, of Dayton, Ohio, and the Forward Club, of the women employes of John Wanamaker, of New York, and the Occident Club, of the Western Electric Company, of Chicago, are all good examples. General factory clubs serve a hot luncheon to the members. In each of the above-mentioned clubs the membership is confined to the employes of the firm.

There exist in Chicago several clubs known as luncheon clubs, which are carried on under the auspices of school alumni, or by other clubs. The Noonday Rest is under the management of the Klio Association. It has a daily average attendance of five hundred women for lunch. Various classes are also carried on; sewing, embroidery, the foreign languages and music are most in demand. The Altruria Club, of Chicago, owns and supports its own holiday home for the benefit of its members. The Clover Club, of Boston, has a vacation fund which is controlled by the club for the use of the members.

All the social settlements in all the cities have clubs galore in connection with settlement work; in fact, most of the social and college settlements are the centers for the neighborhood activities of women and children, a very small number of men, comparatively speaking, being directly reached by settlement efforts. Some of the best work accomplished by the settlements is through the agency of the women's clubs. St. Louis has an interesting association known as the "Wage Earners' Self-Culture Clubs," which defines its object as "to give lecture

MRS. MARY E. MUMFORD
Formerly vice-president of the General Federation of Women's Clubs and president of the New Century Club of Philadelphia; now vice-president of the National Congress of Mothers

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courses, classes, housekeeping schools, baths and opportunities for general and self-culture." This organization has been in existence for fourteen years; men, women and children are eligible for membership, the women predominating, of course. Sunday afternoon concerts are given, lectures on technical subjects, cooking classes; in a word, it would be difficult to find any form of social activity not being carried on by this organization.

The club movement has also invaded Europe, mainly inaugurated by American women. There are several in London, the Pioneer being the oldest. The American women have established a woman's club for Americans in the principal European cities: London, Paris, Berlin, etc. The English colonies, Australia and India, have numerous clubs, while in Canada they are reckoned by the hundreds. Several have been organized in South America and there is one among the American missionaries of Central Africa.

About nine years ago the women's clubs began to understand how powerful a factor they had become in the community life, and felt the necessity for a closer bond of coöperation which would give to each the benefit of the experience of the other, and an association was formed called the General Federation of Women's Clubs. There were about fifty representatives of the leading clubs of the country who were present at the first meeting, which was held in New York. The new organization grew rapidly and clubs all over the country applied for membership. At the last biennial, which was held in Los Angeles in June, 1902, the corresponding secretary reported a membership of 763 clubs, four district federations and thirty-nine state federations.

MRS. VIRGINIA G. BERRYHILL
First president of the Iowa Federation of Women's Clubs

The General Federation has had a great influence on the work of the clubs. The first four years marked its most rapid growth, the next four the organizing of state federations. The biennial meetings have been held in different sections of the country, north, south, east and west. Thus a large number of delegates have been able to attend at least one biennial and have the benefit of the training which comes to every one who is an acting member of a large assembly. For the last four years the growth of the General Federation has been through the rapidly increasing membership of the state federations. There are now thirty-nine state federations, all members, with one or two exceptions, of the General Federation.

The General Federation has not, as yet, realized the great power for good it might become in this country, and the influence it would wield in national and social matters. Several reasons have operated to account for this lack of initiative on the part of so powerful an organization, the principal one being that as the General Federation is composed of individual clubs, as well as the state federations, and as many of the former are of a passed type, being purely for self-culture, the membership is too diffuse, thus lacks unity of thought and of purpose. The representation of the state federation is comparatively small, so that an ultra conservative influence has guided the administrative board.

If the General Federation has lacked initiative, the state federations have not. At the Philadelphia biennial, in 1894, three state federations reported as having been organized and having joined the General Federation; they were Iowa, Massachusetts and Maine. There was no

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provision in the constitution to admit state federations, so they were taken into membership on the same basis as were individual clubs, by paying $10 annual dues and sending the president and two delegates to the biennial. From May, 1894, to May 1896, nineteen states organized federations; from May, 1896, to 1898, nine more were organized. At the Louisville biennial, in 1896, the principle of a recognition of the state federation *per se* was firmly established, and at every subsequent meeting the states have forced the reluctant assembly to grant them a larger representation and more power. At the Denver biennial, in 1898, the per capita due was established, and the state federations were recognized as a distinct body within the General Federation.

The lines of work carried on by the state federations may be classed as literary, educational, civic and economic. Naturally the practical work which these associations undertake centers in the state. Even with the rapid centralization which is going on in the national government the governmental acts which most nearly affect a man's welfare or his comfort are those of his city, county or state. It is, therefore, easy to see why the state should be the unit of action. The residents of a state, outside certain large cities like New York, Boston, Philadelphia, Chicago, etc., have a certain similarity of aim, live under a common educational system, attain about the same average standard of culture, have in other words a state standard of life. Thus the officers of the state federation are able to judge of the educational and social needs of their constituents and know where to find the right working material among the women's clubs. These federations are growing rapidly. The three largest are New York, Massachusetts and Illinois, each of them having over two hundred clubs in membership, which represents about twenty thousand individual members to each federation. The meetings are annual and are very largely attended; in fact, so great is their value that the pressure from outsiders to go on the program seriously embarrasses the program committees.

The state federations have been most democratic in admitting associations to membership, and have thus changed the complexion of the organizations as composed of women's clubs only. The city sections of the National Council of Jewish Women, the National League of Lutheran Women, the National League of Catholic Women, are welcome as members. In

MRS. PHILIP N. MOORE
President of the Missouri Federation of Women's Clubs

some of the states colored women's clubs are admitted, and the settlement clubs; in a word, these organizations have been "fine mixers," obliterating religious and class distinctions, and have thus been a potent factor in democratizing whole communities. They have founded public and traveling libraries in Tennessee, Kentucky, North Carolina, Illinois, and in all those states which have not as yet the traveling library laws, the state federations have virtually carried on this work.

They have been instrumental in securing the passage of many laws which affect the industrial status of women and children, as the child labor law of Illinois, the most liberal of the labor laws of any state. The juvenile court law was indorsed and its passage secured by the clubs, and eleven other states have copied, in a great degree, the law. Many of the federations have worked for the preservation of the natural beauties of the state, as witness the successful efforts of the California federation for the preservation of the giant trees, the New York fed-

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eration for the Palisades, the Minnesota for the northern forests.

The state federations have adopted the same form of organization as have the department clubs, and report their work through committees. The ever increasing respect and consideration which the legislatures and the community at large evince for the movements endorsed by the various state federations are abundant proof of their usefulness and necessity.

CLUBHOUSE, NEW CENTURY CLUB, PHILADELPHIA

The clergy have good reason to feel aggrieved, as much of the work now carried on through the agency of the clubs has withdrawn from the churches a large number of capable women. There are many reasons why this should be so; women have "advanced" sufficiently to demand the rewards of work, a fact which the churches are too slow, for their own good, to recognize. In fact, the priesthood is the last stronghold of man supremacy, and in the churches all rewards and positions of trust are given to men, while in the clubs there are many prominent and useful positions which are filled by just the sort of women most useful in church work. In the clubs, women are not obliged to work so hard to raise money to support the organization as they must in the churches, for in the former, each member pays her share. The club work is also on non-sectarian and non-political lines, and, while women often become greatly attached to an institution, they rarely care for a creed *per se* or a political conviction. Thus the younger women, especially, are deserting the work of the churches for that of the clubs.

Every public movement is susceptible of being overdone and this one is no exception. The woman who is an active member in five or six clubs, or even church societies, has too many interests outside her own home. But women of this order are by no means a special development of women's clubs, neither is the woman of "excitable brain and cool emotions" a product of this century. The whole movement, as before stated, is the effort on the part of women to do their share on social lines of the world's work, to take part in what Prince Kropotkin calls, "Mutual aid, as a factor of evolution."

On industrial and economic lines woman has done, and is still doing, her full share. She needed, however, to be educated to take her place as a factor in the social democracy which the present century is developing.

Aside from the large part of the financial burdens of the family and their own support which women are now assuming, there is a wide field for their energy in civic life. This is especially the case in America; through the absorption of men in business, the direction of many social and philanthropic movements devolves on women. Through the experience gained in club work, the preliminary training has been received which enables women to assume public or semi-public positions. In a word, the whole movement is an outgrowth of present social conditions and consequent social demands, and the clubs have, in the main, been equal to the educational requirements of their members.

What the future of the movement will be it is vain to conjecture. It may be an ephemeral phase of the development of woman or it may be a permanent form of organization. At all events, the clubs have served, and are still serving, their day and generation.

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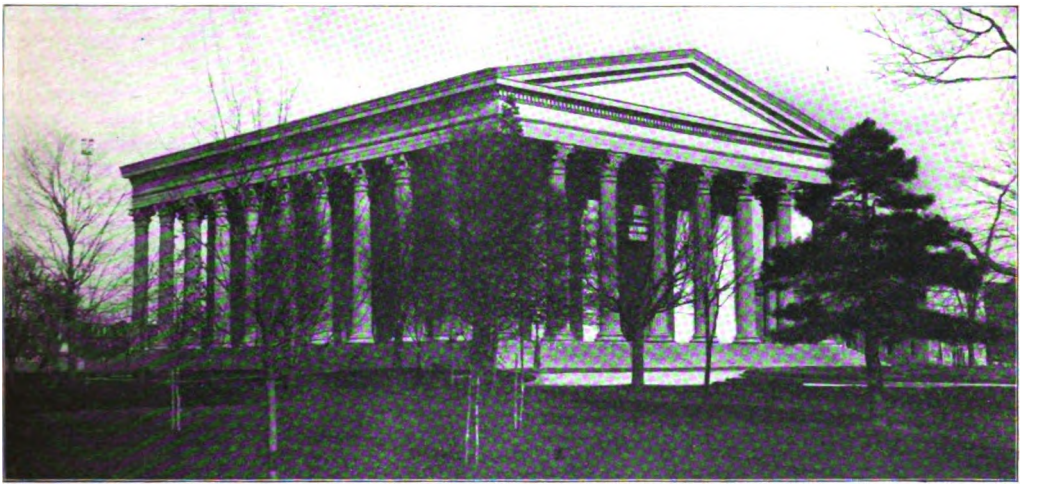
CHARACTER SKETCHES OF CITIES
PHILADELPHIA

BY

ELTWEED POMEROY

IN the character sketch of New York, I pointed out that the facile pencils of the caricaturists had seized the salient points of that city's personality as Father Knickerbocker; another set of men, no less keen-witted and quick to see and portray character, have seized Philadelphia's main characteristics and made them public property. The advertisers of oatmeal, soap and various other commodities made in the city of brotherly love, represent Philadelphia as a stout, middle-aged, sober but smiling Quaker. His garb is old fashioned but comfortable. There are no laces and frills on it as on Father Knickerbocker's, and its colors are dull, as becomes a Quaker. The cloth is inclined to settle into creases conforming to the ample figure, which show good living and comfort. The hands are large and firm, the face under the broad-brimmed hat is also broad, serene, and smiling. It is the face of a man of capacity who knows his own worth and feels that others should know it even if they do not; but then it is not worth bothering about if they do not. It is a face and form begetting confidence. Although the clothes are quiet in color and style, and look as if they were well worn, the cloth in them is of the best quality and they are well made.

Quaker costumes are now seldom seen on the streets of Philadelphia, the "thee" and "thou" of their language are rarely heard outside of a few old homes; yet the architects of the city hall did well to raise a commanding pinnacle in the center of their city and place the statue of William Penn thereon. Without any strenuous striving thereto, his character and that of the early Quakers has permeated and leavened the whole city. I do not know of any other large city that has so conformed itself to the character of one man. It may be that that man was simply a true epitome of those who accompanied him and founded the city with him, and it is their characteristics and not his alone which to-day the city bodies forth. This is most probable.



GIRARD COLLEGE, PHILADELPHIA

The character of Philadelphia is entirely different from that of Baltimore, its neighbor. This illustrates how a man or set of men may impress their character on a locality so that it will remain for

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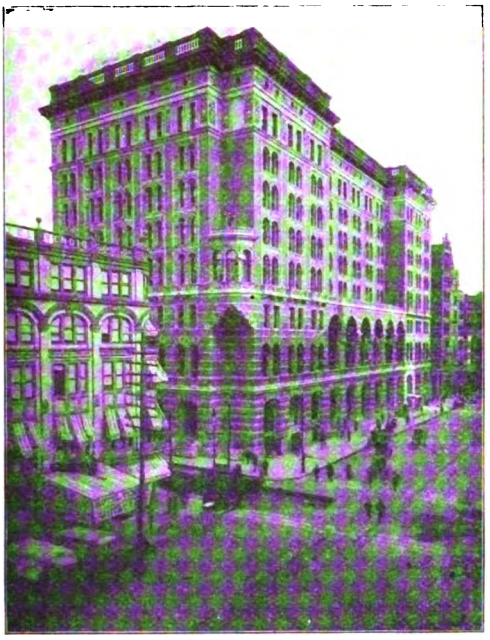
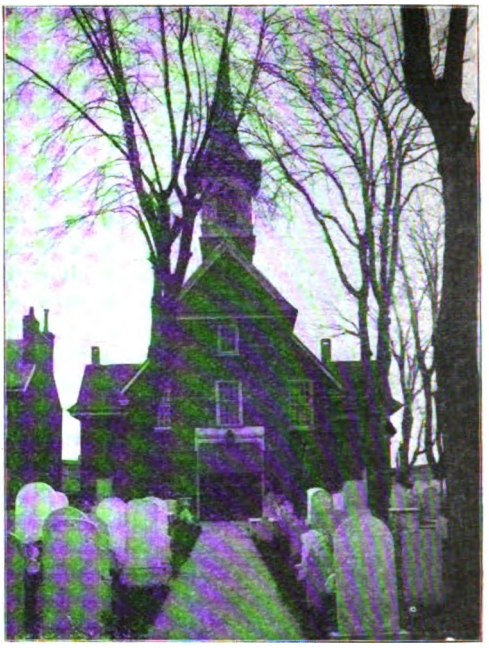


PHILADELPHIA AND READING STATION.



OLD SWEDES' CHURCH, PHILADELPHIA

centuries. The little, homely, comfortable but dignified and homelike brick house built by William Penn for himself on the banks of the Schuylkill and preserved by the Philadelphians with reverent care in their beautiful Fairmount Park is an epitome of the character of the man, so simple, so strong, so kindly is it. And Christ church, on one of the streets near the river, built as this house was, over two centuries ago, with bricks, nails, ironwork, etc., brought over from England, is another characteristic Philadelphia structure. Its like in solidity, comfort, and that dignity which comes from making a building which is adapted to its uses without a thought of architectural splendor, might be found in some parts of London or some English cities but not elsewhere in America.

HOME OF WILLIAM PENN

Possibly the very name has something to do with this tone, insensibly influencing men's minds. Philadelphia, city of Brotherly Love, truly a beautiful name and in some ways it fully carries out that name. Compare its long, monotonous streets of small, red brick houses trimmed with marble, in each of which one family of workmen lives, with the skyscraping, crowded tenements of New York. Does it not seem as if the institution of the family and the privacy of the home were made substantial in bricks and mortar in those rather tame streets which we are apt to poke fun at. Possibly it would be better for the health of the masses if other cities could show their brotherly love in the same sensible method of housing.

Other cities are not jealous of Philadelphia. How can they be jealous of one who calmly pursues the even tenor of her way and wishes others well, not striving

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BROAD STREET, PHILADELPHIA, LOOKING TOWARD CITY HALL

Showing how the business buildings are almost submerging what was intended to be the highest tower in the city

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for any of their possessions but simply making the best of her own. Such an attitude disarms suspicion.

Yet there is a certain, quiet, strong ability about Philadelphia. She will not be strenuous in rivalry, but those large strong hands of hers can grasp their own with a grip so firm that naught can loosen it. Others will think they are beating her and after a time will wake up to find that while they may have excelled on the contended point, she has quietly made progress on other lines. Her hands are those of a worker who will work patiently, steadily, persistently. They are economical hands that will save, though she can spend lavishly when it is wise, as witness her conduct of the Centennial Exposition, the first of our great fairs.

As the financial spirit dominating New York descends, at times, into stinging, despicable commercial greed, so Philadelphia's good qualities sometimes become extremely petty, as when she kow-tows to the men with a Biddle or some other name equally forgotten, as an ancestor, or divides society into sheep and goats by the line of Market street. Or as when she allows a corruption in her municipal government more respectable outwardly perhaps but in reality more corrupt than Tammany in her worst days in New York city. She allows this because of her laziness and her partisan spirit.

In the Philadelphia stores and factories, price cuts a great figure. Though Boston has less than half the population, she has more stores keeping strictly first-class, high-priced goods. In the city of Brotherly Love, almost everything is cheap—cheap. Her shoppers are shrewd spenders and they want comfortable articles, but not the extremely "nice" goods that the Bostonian hankers for, nor the splendid articles the New Yorker buys. The Philadelphian often finds that a little cheaper grade than the best will wear as well. The same is true of her factories. Philadelphia is a great place for making the cheapest lines of goods. I have a friend who came from the West to publish a paper. He searched all the Atlantic seaboard cities to find where he could get good printing done most cheaply and best, and settled in Philadelphia. He has never regretted it. But the Philadelphian dor

INDEPENDENCE HALL, PHILADELPHIA

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not realize that the cheapest goods are rarely the most profitable, that there is not enough margin in them to pay for pushing, and so his wares have not spread over the country.

The architecture of Philadelphia is, when ornate, usually overloaded, heavy and affected. It lacks the grace of its southern sister, Baltimore, and the generally unconscious power wrought into the New York great office buildings. The old buildings in Philadelphia are simply delightful in their unaffected adaptation of means to end. Independence Hall is one of the most noble combinations of brick and mortar in the country, and yet thoroughly simple. Philadelphia has some beautiful parks and her great park, Fairmount, is one of the loveliest in the country; but taken as a whole, Philadelphia is not a handsome city. She is too utilitarian. She is too well laid out with streets running straight from the river and others at right angles across them to afford the vistas and fine locations for effective buildings.

Her every-day citizens have been too busy about their daily affairs to attend to their own government; and, as a result, its corruption excels Tammany in its palmiest days and beats Bath House Coughlin's former rule in Chicago. But with characteristic reticence, Philadelphia does not tell the world about it as these other cities did.

Once the largest city in the land, for years the second, and recently the third, she has taken these changes with equanimity, content with the good fortune which she herself has made by her own work, worth and economy. Not splendid, not pushing, not handsome, perhaps not even learned as her sister on Massachusetts bay, but well-to-do, wholesome, honest, thriving and thrifty is the city of Brotherly Love on the Delaware.

"AMERICANIZATION" BY LABOR UNIONS

BY

JOHN R. COMMONS

STATISTICIAN, NATIONAL CIVIC FEDERATION

IT is not yet appreciated by the American people that the character of European immigration has greatly changed within the past twenty years. The number of arrivals from Europe in 1882 was about equal to the number in 1902, but in the former year eighty-eight out of one hundred came from northwestern Europe, while in the latter year seventy-eight out of one hundred came from southeastern Europe and Asiatic Turkey. Northwestern Europe (excepting Ireland) is Teutonic in race, Protestant in religion, self-governing in politics, skilled in industry and universal in common school education. Southeastern Europe is Latin, Slav and Semitic in race, traditional in religion, despotic in politics, unskilled in industry and illiterate as to its peasantry.

This changing character of immigration would ere now have become an urgent political issue had the new immigrants pressed upon the trade unions of this country, for it is the wage earners who suffer from competition with low-standard workers, while capitalists profit by such competition. But the trade unions, through the contract-labor law of 1885, have succeeded in keeping out the skilled labor of Europe, while the unskilled labor of southeastern Europe comes in competition only with unorganized labor, which is comparatively speechless in politics.

But within the past five years this unskilled immigrant labor has begun to organize. The United Mine Workers, numbering three hundred thousand, and the Longshoremen, numbering seventy thousand, are perhaps the most compact of all organizations of labor, and they are mainly Irish, Italian and Slav. Blast-furnace workers, street laborers, railroad section hands, Jewish garment workers and other groups of recent immigrants have contracted the organization fever. These unions feel acutely the competition of the arriving armies of their unorganized countrymen. Furthermore, new machinery and new division of labor are splitting up the skilled trades, and the older trade unionists, such as machin-

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ists, boilermakers, steelworkers, see the unskilled immigrants crowding into their places. No longer are they able by labor monopoly to rise on the backs of the newcomers. Self-preservation urges them to organize these competitors and to agitate for new restrictions on immigration.

This effort of organized labor to organize the unskilled and the immigrant is the largest and most significant fact of the present labor movement. Apart from the labor question itself, it means the enlistment of a powerful self interest in what may be termed the Americanization of the foreign born. For it is not too much to say that the only effective Americanizing force for the southeastern European is the labor union. The children of the foreigner become Americans through the public schools, but the foreigner himself receives no organized instruction in Americanism until the labor union reaches out for him. Aside from the public school and the labor unions the only influences that might be expected to lift him into the atmosphere of our democracy are those of the church and the electoral suffrage. The church to which he gives allegiance is the Roman Catholic, and, however much the Catholic Church may do for the ignorant peasant in his European home, such instruction as the priest gives is likely to tend toward an acceptance of their subservient position on the part of the workingmen. It is a frequently observed fact that when immigrants join a labor union they almost insolently warn the priest to keep his advice to himself.

Universal suffrage admits the immigrant to American politics within one to five years after landing. But the suffrage is not looked upon to-day as the sufficient Americanizing force that a preceding generation imagined. The suffrage appeals very differently to the immigrant voter and to the voter who has come up through the American schools and American life. The American has learned not only that this is a free government, but that its freedom is based on constitutional principles of an abstract nature. Freedom of the press, trial by jury, separation of powers, independence of the judiciary, and several other governmental and legal principles have percolated through his subconscious self, and when he contemplates public questions these abstract principles have more or less influence as a guide to his ballot. But the immigrant has none of these. He comes here solely to earn a better living. The suffrage is nothing to him but a means of livelihood. Not that he readily sells his vote for money—rather does he simply "vote for his job." He votes as instructed by his employer or his political "boss," because it will help his employer's business or because his boss will get him a job, or will, in some way, favor him and others of his nationality. There is a noticeable difference between the immigrant and the children of the immigrant in this regard. The young men, when they begin to vote, can be appealed to on the ground of public spirit; their fathers can be reached only on the ground of private interest.

Now it can not be expected that the labor union or any other influence will greatly change the immigrant in this respect. But the union does this much: it requires every member to be a citizen or to have declared his intention of taking out naturalization papers. The reasons for doing this are not political; they are sentimental and patriotic. The union usually takes pride in showing that its members are Americans and have foregone allegiance to other countries. Again, the union frees its members from the dictation of employers, bosses and priests. Politicians, of course, strive to control the vote of organized labor, but so disappointing has been the experience of the unions that they have quite generally come to distrust the leader who combines labor and politics. The immigrant who votes as a unionist has taken the first step, in casting his ballot, towards considering the interests of others, and this is also the first step towards giving public spirit and abstract principles a place alongside private interest and his own job.

But there is another way, even more impressive, in which the union asserts the preëminence of principles over immediate self interest. When the foreigner from southern Europe is inducted into the union, then, for the first time does he get the idea that his job belongs to him by virtue of a right to work and not as the personal favor or whim of a boss.

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These people are utterly obsequious before their foremen or bosses, and it is notorious that nearly always they pay for the privilege of getting and keeping a job. This bribery of bosses, as well as the padrone system, proceed from the deep-seated conviction that despotism is the natural social relation, and that therefore they must make terms with the influential superior who is so fortunate as to have favor with the higher powers.

The anthracite coal operators represented such men, prior to joining the union, as disciplined and docile workmen, but in doing so they disregarded the fact that outside the field where they were obsequious they were most violent, treacherous and factional. Before the organization of the union in the coal fields these foreigners were given over to the most bitter and often murderous feuds among the ten or fifteen nationalities and the two or three factions within each nationality. The Polish worshippers of a given saint would organize a night attack on the Polish worshippers of another saint; the Italians from one province would have a knife for the Italians of another province, and so on.

When the union was organized all antagonisms of race, religion and faction were eliminated. The immigrants came down to an economic basis and turned their forces against their bosses. "We fellows killed this country," said a Polish striker to Father Curran, "and now we are going to make it." The sense of a common cause, and, more than all else, the sense of individual rights as men, have come to these people through the organization of their labor unions, and it could come in no other way, for the union appeals to their necessities while other forces appeal to their prejudices. They are even yet far from ideal Americans, but those who have hitherto imported them and profited by their immigration should be the last to cry out against the chief influence that has started them on the way to true Americanism.

The trade union is often represented as an imported and un-American institution. It is true that in some unions the main strength is in the English workmen, and, curiously enough, the English are little inclined to become American citizens. But the great majority of unionists are immigrants from countries which know nothing of unionism. Ireland and Italy have nothing to compare with the trade union movement of England, but the Irish are the most effective organizers of American unions, and the Italians are becoming the most ardent unionists. Most remarkable of all, the individualistic Jew from Russia, contrary to his race instinct, has, in the clothing trade, become a union man.

The American unions, in fact, grow out of American conditions, and are an American product. Although wages are two to three times as high as in his European home, the immigrant is driven by competition into a physical exertion which compels him to raise his standard of living in order to have strength to keep at work. He finds also that the law forbids him putting his children to work and compels him to send them to school. To maintain a higher standard and to support his children he must earn more wages. This he can do in no other way than by organizing in a union. The movement is, of course, aided by English-speaking outsiders or "agitators," especially by the Irish, but it finds a prompt response in the growing necessities of the recruits.

Labor organization is essentially the outcome of American freedom, both as a corrective to the evils of free competition and as an exercise of the privilege of free association. In continental Europe the labor union is organized and managed from above, by the lawyer, the politician, the philanthropist. In America the union is organized from below, by the workmen themselves, in a self-governing association. Just as our New England fathers learned self-government through the polity of the "congregational" or democratic church, so the American workman is learning self-government through the labor union. Willingly to obey laws and officers made and elected by themselves is the essential spirit of self-government; its essential object is that which the team drivers teach in their motto: "Liberty through Organization." Thus through the labor union the immigrant learns his primary lesson in democracy whose basis is liberty and law.

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THE HABITATIONS OF THE LONDON POOR

BY

PERCY ALDEN

HONORARY WARDEN OF MANSFIELD HOUSE, EAST LONDON

I would not have young citizens grow up among images of evil, lest their souls assimilate the ugliness of their surroundings. Rather they should be like men living in a beautiful and healthful place: from everything that they see and hear, loveliness like a breeze should pass into their souls and teach them, without knowing it, the truth of which beauty is the manifestation.—*Plato.*

THE more I study this vast congeries of cities which we call London, the more surprised I am that citizenship is possible.

We live as a vast army in camps, only we lack that sense of discipline which military training produces. We eat and work, because we are compelled by unconscious physical motives; the ethical and the conscious scarcely enter into our calculations.

It is a revelation to any one who has not grown accustomed to the sight, to watch the morning trains unload at Liverpool street, or to stand upon one of London's bridges and see the people as they pour in from the south side of the river. Every minute seems to add hundreds and thousands to the population of central London, and still they come, a never-ending, ever-flowing tide of humanity.

THE BIRD-MARKET, WHITECHAPEL

Where are the dwellings of these millions? Where, especially, are the dwellings of the workingmen daily disgorged by tenements and barrack dwellings, by mean streets and meaner slums?

London is rapidly changing. Like some huge mammoth, day by day it extends its lair, and widens the bounds of its habitation. North, south, east and west, the hordes of modern Goths and Huns force their way with irresistible pressure into the lands that lie beyond the city boundaries. Villadom is sacked and looted; its inhabitants flee still further into the country; its abodes are portioned out among the victorious poor. Degeneration has set in; orchards are cut down, gardens are plowed up, until at last a beneficent municipality steps in and proclaims the area overcrowded, whereupon a still further encroachment is made, and another respectable suburb or open space is swallowed up.

If we follow the course of the Thames we get some idea, at any rate, of the direction of its growth. A walk through East London is a walk through a Ghetto, teeming with human life. Here in one patch of London are a million poor in various stages and degrees of poverty, from the widow who lives on $1 a week to the Jew contractor who is making his pile by the manufacture of cheap and shoddy clothing.

Cross the river Lea from Poplar and you are in a comparatively new land. It is the far East, "London over the border," as Charles Dickens styled it. When he went to visit the district, now called Canning Town, he found it a waste howling wilderness, with no roads worth speaking of. Vice was unchecked and crime rampant; a few streets of hurriedly constructed brick boxes lined the old marsh dykes, and afforded a resting place for

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the rough navvies who excavated, at some cost of life and limb, the Albert and Victoria docks, where now float those giant shuttles that weave the robe of empire, the huge passenger and cargo vessels of the P. & O. and British India line.

It is to the Romans that the jerry-builder owes this marsh land. Their huge embankments to repel the tide, have made it possible to throw together these miles of monotonous streets in which the small houses lean against one another for mutual support. The soil is still oozy and redolent of the sea, save where the mistaken industry and economy of man have obliterated the old landmarks with mountains of house garbage.

On these low lying lands, once a wide open sea of green marsh pasture, as William Morris depicts it in "News from Nowhere," is deposited the flotsam and jetsam of the struggling poor, together with the wreckage of many human lives. The population of East London is an ebbing and a flowing tide. It is ebbing from the older districts like Bethnal-Green and Stepney, where the Londoner is being pushed out by alien* immigrants, who have crowded in and doubled the rents during the last decade.

It is flowing from the agricultural districts and from the small provincial cities, and now checked by the river, the tidal wave sways to the north, and Forest Gate, Leyton, Leytonstone, East Ham, Ilford and Walthamstow are overwhelmed.

TYPICAL EAST END HOUSES
Note the insufficient air-space at rear

This is a part of Greater London, and geographically a part of London itself. Artisans, laborers, clerks, foremen and mechanics swell the throng that day by day packs the trains of the Great Eastern Railway to and from the city.

But let us return to the submerged tenth, or shall we say the submerged fifth,

*I once found sixteen Polish Jews sleeping in a single room twelve feet by fourteen.

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A CONDEMNED AREA IN EAST LONDON

for that is a more accurate estimate. We shall find them in the poorer streets throughout six miles of London and Greater London, journeying from Aldgate Pump. They have their own quarters, and generally speaking, are content with the outworn shells of houses, too old to be repaired, too valuable by reason of the large returns in the shape of rent that they give to be pulled down.

The old streets are unspeakable—wholly given up to dirt and decay; but even in the newer streets the place of their habitation, though pretentious enough on the outside with its bay-windows and venetian blinds, is the abomination of desolation within, and its garden, save the mark, is a few square yards of dirty earth in which it would be impossible for any but the hardiest vegetation to exist.

If the front of the house is decent in appearance, the rear is a strange contrast: "Queen Anne in front and Mary Ann at the back" would describe it accurately. It is a four-roomed cottage with two sculleries, its largest room twelve by twelve, and this noble edifice is not the abode of one family, but of two at least, sometimes three, and even four, each room as crowded as a double-decker in New York.

It is true that London contains nothing like the number of souls to the acre that the eleventh ward of New York (Sanitary District A) boasts. This area in 1894 had a population of nine hundred and eighty-six to every acre of thirty-two acres, and I see that the district around Rivington street at the present moment has about seven hundred and forty-five souls to the acre. Such a state of things is impossible in London, because of the smaller houses, but even where the houses are small the overcrowding is terrible, and some idea of it can be obtained when we remember that over four hundred thousand people in London live in single-room tenements.

In Glasgow ten years ago eighteen per cent of the population lived in single-room tenements, and there is still room for great improvement in all our great industrial centers. Figures do not, perhaps, convey any very clear idea to the uninitiated, but the bare fact that in London 1,292,737 persons, or 37.8 per cent of the whole population, receive in wages less than $5 a week per family, one-third of which goes in rent, comes down upon the mind with almost the weight of a Nasmyth hammer. In that one fact is contained tragedies that must make the very angels weep, while the heroisms unknown and unrecorded of men and women who fight a daily battle with poverty, would supply subject matter for a dozen epic poems.

In London alone there are 99,830 persons in prisons, workhouses, hospitals and industrial schools, and one in every four of the population will die in a workhouse or hospital or lunatic asylum. The very poor, according to Dr. Playfair, die far more rapidly than the well-to-do professional classes. The average age of death of workingmen in East London is about twenty-nine, whereas in the well-to-do districts of West London, the average age is about fifty-five.

As to the great army of poor children who go down to the grave long before their time, it is more than three times as large in East London as in West, the mortality among the poor children of some districts of East London being three hundred and fifty per thousand.

In East London there are two classes, which may be described as poor and very poor. The second class is always on the borderland of starvation, the first seldom or never has even a sufficiency of the necessaries of life, and investigation into the condition of the working classes in any town shows that the percentage is much greater than was ever thought possible.

Putting together these two classes we find that about twelve and one-half per cent of the population are in this unfor-

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A TYPICAL EAST END SHOP: FISHMONGER AND GREENGROCER

tunate plight, while if we take sections of poverty, for example, St. George's-in-the-East, the proportion is something like fifty per cent—twenty-three thousand people being poverty stricken, as against twenty-four thousand above the poverty line.

Charles Booth's classification of the poverty-stricken classes of East London gives us about thirty-eight per cent in poverty of varied degrees.

Let us leave out of account, at all events for the present, that class which may be described as criminal or semi-criminal, the very worst kind of street loafer. It is impossible to get any just estimate of the numbers of this class, but generally speaking it may be taken for granted that in East London, at any rate, they are far less numerous than is commonly imagined. A considerable proportion have come down in life; some of them have belonged to the well-to-do section of society, and owing to drink or to gambling have lost their characters. They are a problem, but they are nothing like the problem presented by the very poor, whose earnings are casual, and who make up an immensely great proportion of the whole population.

For twelve years have I lived in the East End Dock district and have had constant opportunities of meeting casual laborers, especially dockers. During nearly the whole of that time I have been a member of the Docker's Union, and have attended their meetings, and, notwithstanding all that has been said against them, have grown to regard many of them

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as personal friends and worthy of the utmost respect.

When I consider how the casual laborer of East London is housed and clothed and fed; when I remember the nature of his labor and its irregularity; when I picture in my mind his few amusements, and his lack of healthy interests, I am amazed and astounded that so much good remains in him.

He lives and moves and has his being, together with a wife and several children, in one small room and perhaps a kitchen. If he knew his Browning, he might exclaim in a spirit of satire, "O, the wild joy of living."

There are twenty-two thousand casual dockers in East London, and some thousands of them occupy single-room tenements. It is a small box, with a minimum of cubic air space; the walls are papered with the cheapest stuff the market supplies, and in many cases, owing to the fact that the houses have been badly constructed, the paper itself will not stay upon the walls, but peels off in flakes in wet weather. His picture gallery does not consist of works by Corot or Millet, or great living artists; the only ornaments of the walls serving to hide their naked hideousness are an oleograph and one or two framed funeral cards which serve the purpose of the mummy at the Egyptian feast, and remind the docker that all flesh is grass. The day of his real triumph is the day of his funeral. He is much honored by all the neighborhood for his many virtues in life, but chiefly for his benevolence in having died, and thus creating for his neighborhood an interesting interval and a pleasant holiday.

The furniture of the room might possibly be worth all told $5 or $6, but it would hardly fetch that at any sale by auction, and in many cases the broker who distrains for rent, comes to the conclusion that it is worthless. A couple of broken chairs, a little table propped up against the bed, on the table two or three cups and saucers and plates; in the fireplace, never intended for cooking, a frying-pan, a kettle and a saucepan. The bed, upon which husband, wife and several children sleep (the children at right angles to the feet of their parents), is an old iron bedstead, its foundations much demoralized by the family burden it has to bear. To speak in the language of euphemism, the straw mattress is not all that it ought to be; the bedding must be passed over in silence. Across the room is stretched a cord upon which is displayed the scanty wardrobe of both parents and children.

My friend, the docker, returns from his daily task of looking for work and finding it not. He enters his home; the atmosphere is steamy and sodden with wet clothes. There is no chance of drying clothes in the open air, or, even if the weather and the smoke allowed it, he has no claim on the little back yard in which there is not enough room to swing a cat. The children are crying, partly for want of food, partly because they are tired. The preparations for the meal of the day do not take long. It consists of dried fish or scraps of meat, fried, of course, together with tea, bread and margarine. This Lucullus-like banquet over, my docker puts on his cap and makes his way to the nearest saloon. It is not a vastly exciting evening that he spends there. He is treated by one of his mates and stands a drink in return. He smokes his clay pipe and discusses in a vague way horses, the latest murder, and the politics of the docks.

If he has many friends he drinks too much; if he has few friends his sobriety is unquestioned.

An hour or two of such excitement and then home to sleep heavily in the odorous, ill-ventilated room, to rise at half past five in the morning and resume the same dreary task of seeking and waiting for the casual job. His wages average all the year round about $3 a week; his rent is at least $1. As he has no idea whatever of regulating his spending, even if he were able so to do, a week of hard work means a week of comparative comfort, followed by four or five extremely lean weeks, during which he begs and borrows and curses his fate.

Meanwhile the household drudge, his wife, grows more reckless and hopeless every day. For her, if she would do anything like her duty to her children, there is not even the daily social intercourse of the saloon. Lack of fresh air and proper food undermine her health and physique, and we can not be greatly surprised if some day she falls a prey to the tempta-

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tions of drink and its artificial excitement.

I once made the acquaintance of a woman who told me that for thirty years she had not left her house except to go to the nearest shop, which was in the same street, and so hopeless had she become that it was with the greatest difficulty that I persuaded her to attend a concert in the public hall only a few hundred yards away, a building she had never yet seen.

The casual laborer who lives in a tenement, in one of those human hives called artisans' dwellings or "models," is rather worse off on the whole, though the rules for the regulation of his "home" are stricter. He is usually compelled to have more than one room, but the disadvantages are numerous both for the wife and for the children. The life is more abnormal and artificial than that of the slum cottage, and excepting the most modern of these barracks, the death rate among children is higher. It is true that on the top there is a drying ground for clothes, from which point of vantage on Sunday morning, when the atmosphere is clear, the Crystal Palace and St. Paul's may both be seen as a reminder of the fact that religion and amusement seldom enter into the lives of the very poor.

For the most part, however, the habitations of the laborer are portions of a small, mean, four-roomed or six-roomed cottage, and this is uniformly the case as one emerges on London-over-the-border, the districts that have not yet reached "saturation" point.

A birds-eye view presents the spectacle of some huge rabbit warren, in which these denizens of the underworld swarm. Those long yellow and red lines that radiate to the horizon in all directions mark the advance of the great army of the poor.

The further you are away from London, the more you feel the iniquity of that small piece of yard called "air space" at the back of each house. The speculating builder who creates the environment of the poor, does not believe in wasting an inch of land; you must pay for all you get, and I sometimes think he would like you to pay for the very air you breathe. Perhaps some day a particularly enterprising specimen of his class will form a "corner" in atmosphere, in which case a small meter affixed to our windpipes will register our indebtedness to the enterprising capitalist.

BRICK LANE, WHITECHAPEL
"The market of the poor"

Meanwhile, if we are to have space and room to breathe and grow, the great hope for the very poor of London and of all our big cities lies in rapid electric traction, broad, open roads, larger municipal powers and that pressure of sound public opinion which is even more powerful than the mandate of the medical officer or the threat of the sanitary inspector.

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BIBLE LESSONS IN ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS

BY

D. C. GILMAN

PRESIDENT OF THE CARNEGIE INSTITUTION OF WASHINGTON

I HAVE been asked to write an article on the place of the Bible in education. The subject is too large for discussion in a single paper, so that I confine my remarks to the place of the Bible in the instruction given by elementary schools.

Let us for a moment close our eyes to the sacred character of the Scriptures and consider them as literature only. All the arguments that uphold the value of instruction in the great writings of antiquity — Homer, Virgil, Cicero and the rest — to which no objection is made, apply to instruction in the Bible.

There are passages in the Old and New Testaments, familiar and revered by those who are devoutly inclined, and most appropriate to be studied and committed to memory by the youngest scholars. They are lofty in sentiment, dignified in expression and hallowed by associations. The child has a serious lack in his intellectual equipment who grows up without a knowledge of the Mosaic poem of creation, the origin of the decalogue, the exodus, such Psalms as the nineteenth, the twenty-third, and the one hundred and third, parts of the Book of Proverbs, the nobler passages in Isaiah, the Book of Ruth, the speeches of Paul, the "Charity Chapter" in the first epistle to the Corinthians and some of the splendid imagery of the Book of Revelation. Allusions to such passages as these abound in English literature; they can not be appreciated without a study of the Bible. Our history, biography, oratory, poetry, essays, contain innumerable references to incidents, characters, precepts and phrases which can only be understood by those who are familiar with the pages of the Scriptures. If for no other reason, the Bible should be studied as one of the most inspiring, suggestive, instructive and enduring literatures that the world possesses.

There is another reason for urging the study of the Bible, which may be termed the historical reason. Among all the subjects which are engaging the attention of scholars at the present time there is none more fascinating than the origin of religions, languages, laws, and the manners and customs of society. Costly expeditions in Egypt, Mesopotamia, Asia Minor and in the islands of the Mediterranean, within a comparatively recent period have revealed traces of the earliest civilizations of the world. There is no introduction to these researches accessible to the ordinary reader so good as the biblical narratives, especially those of the Old Testament. It is true that some passages are obscure, but many of these are illuminated by modern discoveries. Not a few are readily understood and they throw side lights on the thoughts and ways and institutions of the earliest people of whose traditions we are the heirs. A familiarity with the history of the Jews, and of the various nations with whom they had relations, is a most serviceable and alluring preface to modern discovery in Assyria, Babylonia, Phenicia, Palestine and Egypt. This historical argument is therefore entitled to great weight.

Moreover, the Authorized Version has a claim to a place in the elementary schools which does not belong in like degree to any other version. In its present form it was set forth when the English language had acquired its full dignity. For diction alone, if for no other reason, such passages as I have named (and there are many more of equal value) should be familiar to every one. This is admitted by all who wish to maintain the simplicity and purity of our inherited tongue. In no other language is there a version comparable with this. Many of the best writers of recent years have acknowledged their indebtedness in the matter of style to the examples and illustrations with which they became familiar in the sacred pages.

For these three reasons—the literary, the historical and the rhetorical—it is a great misfortune that the study of the

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Bible has been allowed to drop out of general education.

I have sometimes thought of compiling and printing such selections from the Scriptures as I have indicated, in the hope that they might find favor as reading exercises in secular and week-day schools. Another volume might be made up of moral lessons. The two might well be combined. If the coöperation of Protestants, Catholics and Jews could be secured in such a compilation, what a gain it would be. If Monsignor O'Connell, head of the Catholic University, Doctor Harper, head of the University of Chicago, and Doctor Schechter, head of the Jewish Seminary in New York, would give their indorsement to a collection of moral precepts made up from the Bible, we should have a text-book in ethics to which little, if any, objection could be made. The choice might be made from any good version, King James, the Douay, or the Jewish translation, or some selections from them all.

Perfunctory "reading of a chapter" at the opening of a school has but little value. Study is needed. That study may be literary, historical or ethical. As I said in beginning, I do not now consider the religious aspects of this question. I know how hard it is to bring about in public schools agreement with regard to the use of the Bible, but to the limited extent now suggested, extracts from the Bible might be and should be employed as a part of the course of study in schools of every grade, both public and private.

SHALL WE LOOK TO THE STAGE FOR OUR PREACHING?

BY

IVAN C. WATERBURY

THIS question implies, "Will the stage supplant the pulpit?" Whereto the answer is assuredly, No. Nevertheless, the matter does not end here. Suppose one asks, "Does the stage impart moral instruction; can it supplement the work of the pulpit?" To this the answer is decidedly, Yes. The provinces of the two institutions overlap, they own a great deal of ground in common, but their limits do not coincide. Each points its moral in a different way. The pulpit formulates and expounds; the stage demonstrates, exhibits, portrays, depicts. What the stage must represent in life, the pulpit must interpret and comment upon. Thus the stage is of great illustrative value to the pulpit, and the cultured, the educated, and the serious-minded would hate to lose either institution. By seeing a stage representation of the story of a crime and its natural nemesis, as in the case of Macbeth, one can often learn more than one could from hearing many sermons. On the other hand, one often sees in a stage representation a life problem of such complexity, like many of the perplexing situations we meet with in actual life, that one desires to hear a good, vital discussion and interpretation of the problem by an accredited teacher possessing ethical insight and broad human sympathies. Such interpretation it is the function of the pulpit, not the stage, to supply.

The didacticism of the pulpit is direct; that of the stage indirect. This must not be taken as an invidious comparison; for the statement gives no inkling as to the effectiveness of the teaching of either institution. It merely shows the difference in manner and method whereby each institution conveys its message. The pulpit teaches by precept; the stage by example and influence. The comparative effectiveness of either process depends on the circumstances in the individual case. Each institution represents a need of the race; each has its serious, lofty mission; and the church should regard the theater as a valuable ally, as many prominent clergymen in England and America have come to do.

During the last six months, several English and American clergymen have been making an interesting effort to revive the use of the theater as an

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adjunct to the church. Recognizing the potential instructive value of the theater, they think it should supplement the work of the pulpit as it did in the thirteenth century; that the church should direct popular amusements; and that church influence can best elevate the theater. Last winter the Rev. Forbes Phillips, of Gorleston, England, established a dramatic society in his own parish, and advocates the establishment of like organizations throughout the United Kingdom. Another notable outcome of this church and theater movement is the Actors' Church Alliance, which has 2,500 members in four hundred cities of the United States, Canada, Hawaii and the Philippines. Of this organization Bishop Potter is president and Joseph Jefferson, vice-president. Its secretary, the Rev. Walter E. Bently, has transformed the basement of his church in New York into a theatrical auditorium. However successful or unsuccessful such ministerial undertakings may be from a practical point of view, they are strong testimonials of the instructive value of the theater. It is not necessary, or even desirable, for preachers to divide their energies by establishing theaters in their churches. The presentations in such theaters can be merely amateur, and the noble lessons of the higher drama can be adequately taught only by the talent and equipment of the professional stage. Of much greater value is the testimony of representative players, who must know best their own aspirations and the mission of their art. Those world-famous players, Madame Sarah Bernhardt and Sir Henry Irving, have recently spoken for the essential worth, dignity and high purpose of the stage in unmistakable terms.

SIGNORA ELEONORA DUSE

In "The Moral Influence of the Theater" (*The Cornhill Magazine* for January), said to be the only article ever written by "the divine Sarah," Madame Bernhardt defines the theater as "the temple of all the arts that beautify life." "Whereas a library, a picture gallery or a concert hall, each enthroning its respective art, has its particular admirers, the theater, by the service of literature, music and all the other fine arts, has a stronger claim upon human sympathy, and thus obtains a wider hearing." In the dramatic art she discovers "the supplement of history and philosophy, and a powerful aid to the development of the love of the good and the beautiful to which history and philosophy introduce us.

"The theater has been instructive from all time, and it is ever the scene of progress, revolutionary, artistic and poetic. The theater is the most direct and simple medium of fresh ideas on philosophy, morality, religion and society.

"I believe that this century, which seems to be the era of liberty, has many surprises in store for us, and the theater will be the medium of such surprises. When the time is ready for the fruition of an idea that has been slowly and silently circulating in the hearts of reformers, it is the stage that is the scene of its exhibition to the world.

"'*C'est le ridicule qui tue,*' and this power of presenting the ridiculous a well as the baneful side of a system is sure means of gaining the support of th public for its reform. Victor Hugo saic 'Never should the people leave the theate without taking away with them some pro found moral lesson.' This thought is th inspiration of all idealists, for the stag should be the great school of morality i which the lessons of life appeal to all.

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"If writers were more in accord with Victor Hugo's ideal, we should not see so many pieces which do so much harm, as they familiarize the mind with vice without showing its immorality. The immorality does not, in my mind, consist in what it represents, but in the confusion of ideas which it causes. When any young man says at the close of a piece, 'I end by not being able to distinguish vice from virtue,' you can be sure that it is a bad piece, for is it not the duty of art to show the moral teaching?"

"The theater," declares Madame Bernhardt, "is a need of all nations, of all races, of all beings. One must love the theater. All young and vigorous races love it. Look at young America—she adores the theater and the theater loves her. . . . Nothing is more touching than the proud and ardent affection of the English for Shakespeare. . . . Was he not the great initiator of the present power of the stage? . . . . It is sad, very sad, to have to say that the Latin races are those who have the least love for the theater, and it may be due to the indisputable fact that these same races are struggling against decadence.

"The Spanish, French and Italians do not take the theater seriously enough. . . . . The French seem to like going to the theater merely to amuse themselves, if it is not a question of going elsewhere. They go to see each other, to admire the actors, to see the dresses, to chat with their friends, but as to a real passion for the theater they are destitute of it. They do not concern themselves seriously with the quality of a drama or a piece, at least, unless they have some purely personal interest in it."

Though we are now dealing with the stage solely as a moral teacher, one must not for a moment lose sight of the fact that drama is preëminently an art, and that moral teaching is only one of its functions. Essentially drama is a composite fine art, in that it presses into its service all five of the fine arts. The immediate purpose of all art is to inspire pleasure; to uplift the moral nature is its ultimate purpose, which it effects through the influence of pleasure. This is why the didacticism of the stage is indirect.

Naturally, then, in an article entitled

MISS ELEANOR ROBSON

"The Mission of the Stage and the Actor" (*Collier's Weekly*, December 13), Sir Henry Irving confines himself to the purely artistic nature of the drama. Yet he states that this art "is something to hold in reverence." "All, actors and audience alike, must bear in mind that the whole scheme of the higher drama is not to be regarded as a game in life which can be played with varying success. The present intention may be to interest and amuse, but its deeper purpose is earnest, intense and sincere."

Never since the publication of Schiller's essay, "The Stage as a Moral Institution" *(Die Schaubühne als eine moralische Anstalt betrachtet)*, if at any other time, has there been any widespread doubt as to the power of the stage by its influence to instruct and uplift the moral as well as intellectual popular life. On the other hand, neither has there been any doubt as to the great power of the stage, when abused and corrupted, to degrade the popular life. Naturally, in view of the ultimate noble purpose of all art, the strength of the stage's influence for good or evil depends on the artistic excellence of its presentations. As every great work of dramatic or any other art em-

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bodies a noble idea, there is no conflict between the laws of morality and the laws of dramatic art.

Turning to the present status of the American theater, in a general survey of the work of the past season and of the promises for the opening season, a gratifying reaction toward the serious drama is discernible. That caricature of comedy known as farce, and that caricature of tragedy known as melodrama are still too rampant. Nevertheless, the past season witnessed legitimate presentations which are landmarks in stage history. We have reference to the following productions as bearing directly upon the subject in hand: "Mary of Magdala,"

MRS. MINNIE MADDERN FISKE

by Mrs. Minnie Maddern Fiske; "Everyman," by Mr. Ben Greet's company of English players, headed by Miss Edith Wynne Matthison; "Julius Cæsar," by Richard Mansfield; "Romeo and Juliet," by an excellent cast, headed by Mr. Kyrle Bellew and Miss Eleanor Robson in the title rôles; Sudermann's "The Joy of Living," by Mrs. Patrick Campbell; d'Annunzio's "Francesca da Rimini," by Signora Eleonora Duse; Part I. of Goethe's "Faust," by the Wachsner Stock Company; and Richard Ganthony's "A Message from Mars," by Mr. Charles Hawtrey.

Nearly all these excellent productions were criticized in detail in THE WORLD TO-DAY of the months when each was given in Chicago. The translation of Paul Heyse's sacred drama, "Mary of Magdala" is a powerful depiction of the influence of Christ's personality and teaching and the effect of his Passion upon the people associated with him. The chief of these effects shown are the conversion of Mary of Magdala from a life of sin, and the remorseful despair of Judas during the crucifixion. These terrible but beautiful scenes made so profound an impression and met with so cordial a welcome all over the country that Mrs. Fiske will devote her whole time this season to a repetition of this grand production.

"Everyman" is also to be given again throughout this season, because of the encouragement inspired by its success everywhere last season. This remarkable little relic comes nearer possessing direct didacticism than any other of these plays, for the simple reason that it is one of the many moralities written with the avowed purpose of supplementing the work of the priests that preached and taught religion and ethics in the old English monasteries. Its interest is not merely historical. Its lesson of right living is as applicable today as it was four centuries ago, and the sincerity and pathos that breathe through its simple artistic structure lend it a force that never fails to bring tears to the eyes of an audience.

In view of the bloody feuds of Kentucky, the ministers that started a pulpit crusade against such lawlessness early in the spring could point their moral with the terrible lesson conveyed in "Romeo and Juliet," showing what calamity and suffering can befall two beautiful, noble children solely through the murderous hate existing between their respective parents and kindred. The force of this lesson could not but be enhanced by the masterly Liebler presentation of the play to which we refer.

A lesson in unselfishness and altruism is cleverly demonstrated in that delightful piece of fantasy, "A Message from Mars," which Mr. Charles Hawtrey presented last season almost a thousand

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times in England and the United States. Mrs. Patrick Campbell made a profound impression with Sudermann's masterly depiction of a modern social sin and its nemesis, "The Joy of Living."

The presentation of Goethe's "Faust" in German by the Wachsner Stock Company of Milwaukee was as successful as it was bold and unique. So far as we are informed, this was the only time that Goethe's masterly depiction of a Christian Prometheus ever appeared on an American stage. The audience that crowded the Chicago Auditorium theater may be taken as a testimonial of the readiness with which Americans will respond to a noble work of art. The same is true of the welcome accorded Signora Duse's brilliant rendition of "Francesca da Rimini."

The success, financial as well as artistic, of Richard Mansfield's sumptuous production of "Julius Cæsar" seems to have encouraged many of our leading players to undertake Shakespearean revivals. There are to be more Shakespeare productions of importance this season in the United States than for many years. According to the latest information the list will include the following: "As You Like It," by Miss Henrietta Crosman; "Midsummer Night's Dream," by Mr. Nat Goodwin; "Twelfth Night," by Miss Viola Allen; "Hamlet," by Mr. E. H. Sothern; "Othello" (possibly), by Mr. Lackaye, and "The Taming of the Shrew" and "The Merchant of Venice," by Mr. Otis Skinner and Miss Ada Rehan.

It is pleasing to note that Mr. William Gillette, the gifted playwright and actor who is so effective in infusing dignity and refinement into pieces which in other hands would be veriest melodrama, is at last going into serious drama. His new play depicts the brilliant, heroic story of "The Admirable Crichton."

THE RECENT ARMY AND NAVY MANOEUVERS

BY

JAMES THOMAS WILLIAMS, JR.

IN the event of war between the United States and a foreign power, the people of Portland, Maine, and that vicinity have little to fear from an attack by sea. The joint army and navy manoeuvers off that port last August demonstrated the splendid natural defenses possessed by Portland and the advantage of her narrow channels. The successful defense of Portland by the army is, in the opinion of army and navy officers, adequate proof of the almost impregnability of her natural and artificial fortifications.

Preceding the joint manoeuvers of the army and navy was the "Search Problem," which is exclusively a naval manoeuver. Two squadrons, representing an attacking and a defending force, were engaged in this drill, which lasted from August 3 to August 8. The attacking or hostile squadron was attempting to enter an unfortified harbor, effect a landing and remain in possession for six hours before a superior division of the defense squadron appeared on the scene. Rear-Admirals Barker and Sands were the opposing commanders, commanding respectively the defending and attacking squadrons.

To the Olympia, Admiral Dewey's flagship at Manila, it was given to discover the enemy on the morning of August 6 while cruising off Baker's Island. Rear-Admiral Sands was at that time making a desperate dash for Winter Harbor.

"There they are, sir," one of the observers on the upper deck of the Olympia called out, as the dense fog of the early morning rolled slowly away, revealing the hostile ships a short distance away. Under the rules of the problem, the Olympia was theoretically destroyed when she came upon the hostile squadron, which greatly overpowered her. Instead of attempting to escape and inform the other vessels of the defense division, the Olympia bravely stood her

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ground, and her commander, Rear-Admiral Coghlan, quickly sent a wireless message to the commander-in-chief announcing the discovery of the enemy and calling for immediate relief.

Within a few minutes after the dispatch of this message a reply was received from Rear-Admiral Barker, and within an hour the Kearsarge, followed by the Illinois and Alabama, steamed down upon the attacking division at full speed. They

PLACING DUMMY MINES IN THE SHIP CHANNEL

arrived just in time to prevent Rear-Admiral Sands from gaining Winter Harbor.

Wireless telegraphy saved the day, and the victory has already become historic in naval circles as affording the first practical demonstration, under conditions closely simulating those of actual war, of the value of wireless telegraphy. The effect of this victory will soon be seen in the equipping of all of the large vessels of the navy with wireless telegraphy apparatus and the erection of many additional shore stations.

But the search problem developed another important fact—the value of swift and well-armed scout ships, equipped with wireless telegraphy and other systems of signaling. Scouts have been called the "eyes of the fleet," and the manoeuvers have shown that the fleet's eyesight was in imperative need of improvement. These vessels must necessarily constitute a part of a system by which they are enabled to keep in close touch with the main fleet, either directly or indirectly, through what may be called a central bureau afloat.

In apprehending Rear-Admiral Sands' squadron a new system of scouting, based on experience in the winter manoeuvers in the Carribbean and perfected at the Naval War College at Newport, was used to good advantage. By this system scouting is reduced to a mathematical basis. For the perfect working of this system, however, many scouts are needed, and the lack of them in the fleet prevented the new system from being given an adequate trial.

Capture of the hostile squadron and the conclusion of the problem left the ships time to coal, attend the naval review at Oyster Bay and return to New England waters in ample time for the joint army and navy manoeuvers.

The joint manoeuvers began at Portland at midnight of August 25, and closed at noon of August 29. By the assumed conditions a strong fleet of the enemy known as the "red" fleet, sailed at 6 p.m. on Sunday with orders to reach Portland in forty-four hours. The defense was informed of this threatened attack six hours later and was then at liberty to complete its preparations, mine and obstruct channels and blow up bridges.

The defense of Portland was in the hands of the army. Its capture was the mission of the combined North Atlantic fleet under Rear-Admiral Barker, with Rear-Admirals Coghlan, Sands and Wise

SKIRMISHERS FROM FORT WILLIAMS HOLDING MARINES IN CHECK

commanding divisions. Including colliers and tugs the fleet numbered nearl thirty vessels.

Major-General Adna R. Chaffee was command of the two thousand regula troops, augmented by national guar forces from Maine, Massachusetts, Ne York and Rhode Island. Every precau tion had been taken by the army fo securing the first news of the attackin

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squadron's approach. All along the coast in the vicinity of Portland observers were stationed, and the weather bureau stations were also on the lookout for the ships.

Rear-Admiral Barker's plan of attack provided for a general attack along the whole line from Richmond Island, below Cape Elizabeth, to the easternmost signal station in Casco Bay. With the Yankee, Topeka, Prairie, Essex, Alliance and Nina, Rear-Admiral Wise was to operate in the vicinity of Broad Sound, seize a base, demolish the signal station on Orr's Islands, Haskel's Island and all others in the vicinity; cut telegraph lines, land parties to capture guards at signal stations, and annoy the enemy in every way possible.

Rear-Admiral Coghlan with his command, comprising the Olympia, flagship; Baltimore, Newport, Panther and Vixen, and the destroyers Worden and Stewart, was instructed to operate from Hussey and Luckse's Sound, engaging the enemy wherever practicable and if possible getting around Great Diamond and Cow Islands to attack them from the rear.

To the commander-in-chief, with the battleship division and several auxiliaries, namely the Kearsarge, Illinois, Alabama, Peoria, Scorpion, and the destroyers Truxtun, Lawton and Whipple, was left the countermining of the main ship channel and White Head Channel.

Rear-Admiral Sands, with the Texas, Chicago, Indiana and Hartford, was to do damage in every way possible to the left of the main ship channel.

Shortly after midnight of August 26 the Scorpion, Peoria and the three destroyers sneaked in under cover of darkness, but when far in were picked up by the searchlights and drew a heavy fire from the forts upon them. The Kearsarge followed in the early morning, Rear-Admiral Barker convinced that he had destroyed all the searchlights. On this point there was a lively difference of opinion between the War and Navy Departments.

Later in the day the Panther made an unsuccessful attempt to effect a landing at Long Island and take possession. The Hartford and Alliance succeeded in surprising and capturing Fort George. A successful move was that of the Scorpion and Peoria in towing a large number of boats containing a thousand men to attack Long Island.

LIGHT ARTILLERY FROM FORT ETHAN ALLEN ON THE MARCH

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A general attack along the whole line was led that afternoon by the Kearsarge and the army was given a good opportunity to test its range finders and those of the vessels themselves.

After storming the main entrance to the harbor of Portland, Rear-Admiral Barker led the line, sailing back and forth in the inner harbor, engaging the forts; and the next morning Rear-Admiral Coghlan landed a force of about fifteen hundred men to capture the stations at Cape Elizabeth and do as much damage to the enemy as possible in that section. The army claimed that the ships of Rear-Admiral Barker were quickly put out of action by the "deadly" fire from the forts, but the navy refused to consider itself disabled, and Rear-Admiral Barker's squadron continued to cruise around the harbor annoying the enemy in every way possible. The manoeuvers formally closed August 29.

The work of the army in the manoeuvers this year showed marked improvement over that of last year. There was a better state of preparation throughout, and the various branches seemed to work together more harmoniously. There was also less duplication of work on the part of the engineers, ordnance and artillery. Far reaching and important were the lessons learned by the army in the manipulation of searchlights, although in this they yet have much to learn; in the best system of fire control and direction; in the location of range finders; in the system of signals by searchlights between the forts, and in the best method of conducting the work of security and information and the utilization of the life-saving and commercial stations along the coast.

Valuable lessons were also learned by the navy in the campaign against Portland, notwithstanding the fact that the attacking squadron knew just what it was going to do. Opportunity was offered for study of the best method of obtaining the ranges of forts and batteries to be attacked, the method of manoeuvering under fire, concealing the approach, and the successful use of searchlights. Rear-Admiral Taylor, chief of the Bureau of Navigation, thinks the distinctive lesson learned by the navy in the attack on Portland was the best method of landing large forces of men. This was successfully done several times and on a much larger scale than was attempted last year.

FIRST AND SECOND SIGNAL CORPS, NEW YORK

Although the manoeuvers are frequently spoken of as war games, the term is misleading. The joint manoeuvers mean the hardest kind of work for officers and men in the army and navy. There are fewer spectacular features each year, and more and more hard work.

To the spectator the manoeuvers were in many of their phases unintelligible. Vessels were seen steaming straight ahead, regardless of the scorching fire

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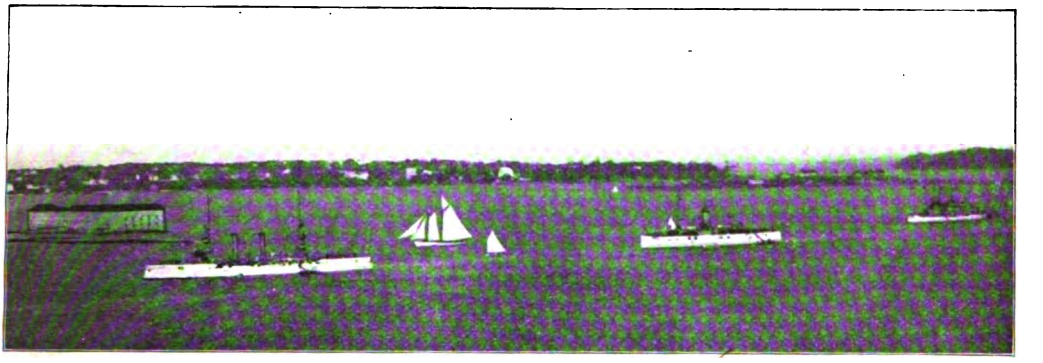

PORTLAND HARBOR, MAINE
Showing Fort Gorges and United States warships

that poured down upon them from the forts. This will explain the differences between the representatives of the army and navy as to what really occurred at Portland. The explanation for these discrepancies is not hard to find. The ships, unable to hear the forts or see the fire of the guns, which burn only thirty-five pounds of powder, went ahead as if they had not been discovered.

The navy was unfortunate in the number of accidents to ships. The Massachusetts struck a ledge while coming out of Bar Harbor on her way to Oyster Bay; the Decatur and Barry came together in what well nigh proved a disastrous collision, just after the Oyster Bay review; the Olympia grounded at the close of the manoeuvers and the Decatur was also in a slight collision several weeks before her second accident. None of these damages, however, have proved serious and the feeling is general in naval circles that it is better for such mistakes to be made in time of peace than in time of war.

Preparations have already been made for the winter manoeuvers in the Carribbean Sea, when the North Atlantic, South Atlantic and European squadrons combine under command of Admiral Dewey for operations in the West Indies. Manoeuvers for the army have been planned by the general staff in various parts of the country.

PORTLAND HEAD LIGHT

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MEN OF THE MONTH

Lord Salisbury

A Minister But Not a Party Leader

NONE of the pictures of Lord Salisbury impresses one with the fact that he was a big man, yet Sir Algernon West somewhere speaks of playing whist with three other men whose average height was six feet three inches, one of whom was Salisbury. Nor do his pictures, at least those taken in his later years, really give one the impression of the versatile, reckless debater whose brief career in the House of Commons made him the successor of Disraeli. Undoubtedly Lord Salisbury's career was more brilliant at its beginning than at its end. Four times secretary of state for foreign affairs, and three times premier of Great Britain, he was a man to extricate his country from difficulties rather than to favor a policy sufficiently aggressive to give rise to difficulties. In each instance in which he headed the government his problems were really set for him by the Liberal party. In a certain sense his entire career was a repetition of his remarkable success in the Berlin Congress: he "brought back peace with honor." It is indeed a fair question whether he would have achieved greatness if it had not been for the energy—and mistakes—of Mr. Gladstone.

Great as has been the regret in England at his death, it has been rather more of the intellect than of the heart. Lord Salisbury was true to the traditions of a feudal age. Few statesmen of any eminence in this country have lived so much apart from the lives of the people who gave them their power. The marquis delivered his speech on the platform or in the House of Lords, he indited his despatch on some difficult question of foreign politics, and then he retired again to the seclusion of Hatfield House, the beautiful old castle which was his principal home. What went on behind the walls of that building few persons were privileged to know. The man who was prime minister for a longer period than any other statesman for generations past, managed to maintain as rigorous a privacy in regard to his home life as any unknown individual of the middle classes.

This fact accounts in large measure for the comparative calmness with which the British nation has received the news of his death and has watched the preparations for a funeral which has been as privately conducted as if Lord Salisbury had not been a great public man. There has not been that feeling of personal loss which kept the whole nation on the tenterhooks of anxiety when Mr. Gladstone died. The latter had lived among the people and was one of the people. In the case of Lord Salisbury there is immense admiration for his intellect, for the strength with which he kept his party together, for the self-denial with which he devoted himself to the public service. But the marquis was too cold; he kept too high a barrier between himself and the populace ever to admit anything like terms of personal friendship.

This mental aloofness manifested itself even in the House of Lords in which for twenty years the Marquis of Salisbury was the wielder of almost absolute power. Lord Salisbury sat in that chamber listening to the debates, scarcely speaking to his colleagues, but remaining seated with bowed head, looking straight before him till the time came for him to speak. The one peer with whom he seemed to unbend was Lord Halsbury, the lord chancellor, who, although he has sprung from the people, has notions of the rightful position of the aristocracy not less firmly fixed than were those of Lord Salisbury himself. As a conversationalist he was esteemed by the late prime minister for the vein of sardonic humor, scarcely less marked than that of the marquis himself, which runs through all he says.

Lord Salisbury will be remembered not as a great prime minister in the sense that Gladstone, Disraeli and Sir Robert Peel were great, but as a foreign minister of rare knowledge, of almost unequaled tact, and of a firmness that never wavered before popular clamor. He dared to choose peace, even when it was difficult to avoid war. He had the courage to sur-

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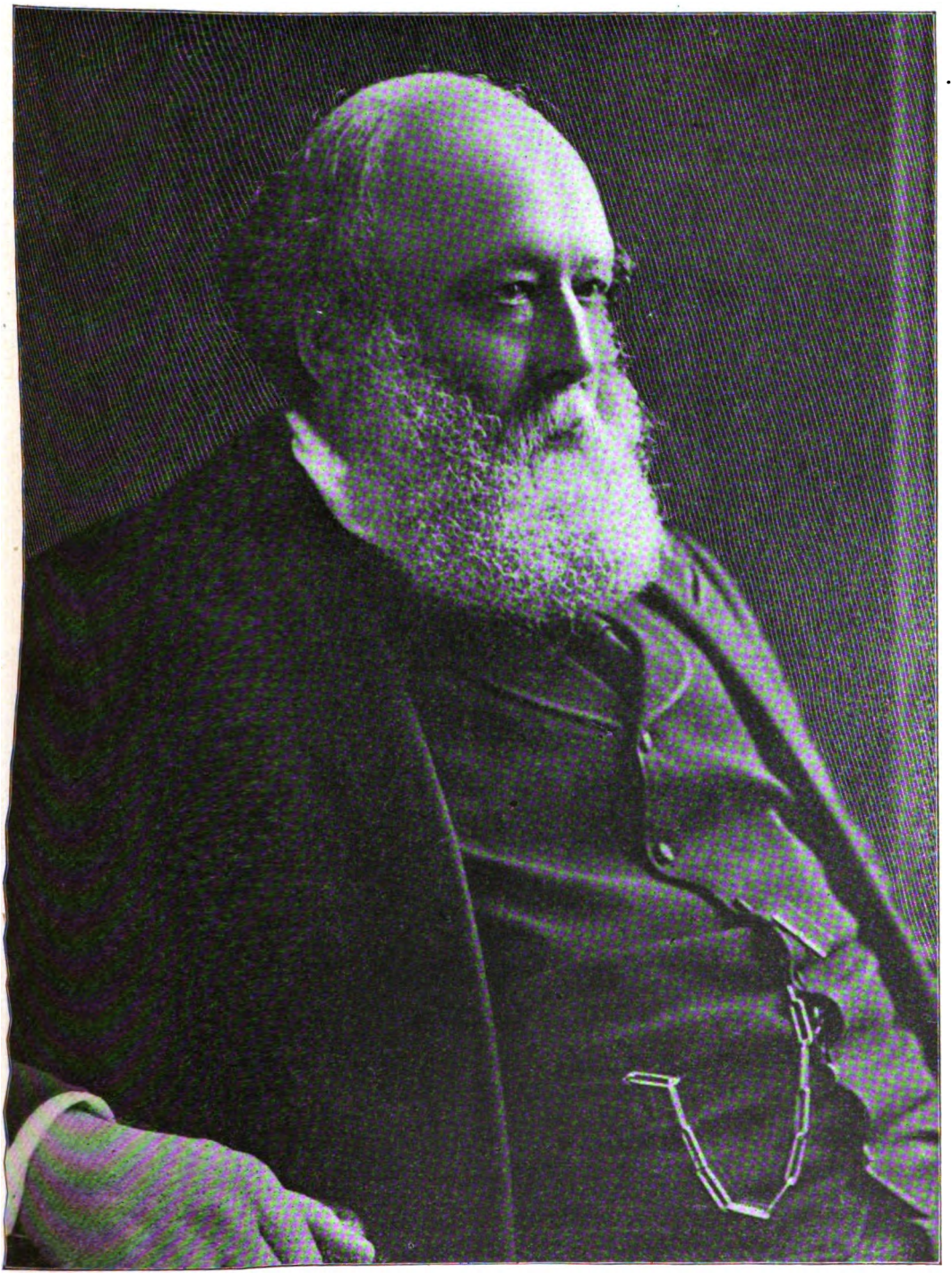

THE MARQUIS OF SALISBURY

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render when he had a bad case. At the time of the difficulty with the United States, in regard to the British claim in Venezuela, he risked his personal position in retreating from an altogether false attitude, and later on, when trouble arose with France as to the claim to the Sudan, not one word escaped his lips which would have provoked anger or resentment in England's neighbors. It would indeed be interesting to speculate as to what would have happened if a man of a different temperament had been prime minister when President Cleveland issued his celebrated manifesto regarding Venezuela. It might have been extremely uncomfortable for the United States. As it was, thanks to Salisbury, the incident marks the beginning of a new stage in American diplomacy. The Venezuela Commission was an unprecedented recognition of the Monroe Doctrine.

The later years of Lord Salisbury furnish a good illustration of his inherent weakness as a leader. The Boer war was not his work but that of Mr. Chamberlain; and that, together with the death of his wife, may fairly be said to have caused his pessimistic prophecies as to England's future, if indeed not his death. Lord Salisbury lacked, as did Gladstone, that ability to attach individuals to himself which was such a remarkable characteristic of Mr. Blaine. But Gladstone had what Lord Salisbury never had—an ability to attract groups of men and to make himself an embodiment of an issue. Just how Lord Salisbury will finally be ranked among the prime ministers of England it is now difficult to say, but one thing is clear: perhaps the least spectacular of the great Englishmen of his time, by virtue of circumstances resulting from other men's mistakes, he was enabled to be one of the most constructive statesmen of the century.

Yet his party will not long survive him. With his going the great political combination which gave him his strength and held him in power for so many years already begins to break up. The withdrawal of the personality of Mr. Gladstone dealt the Liberal party a blow from which even now it has not recovered. The death of Lord Salisbury will doubtless return it to power.

Charles Carroll Bonney

Famous as the Founder of the Parliament of Religions

CHARLES CARROLL BONNEY, who died August 23, was a man of high aims and great achievements. Eminent in his profession, he valued equity and justice more than the fees of his clients. While devoted to his profession, he was constantly occupied with the broader interests of human life. Essentially a reformer and an idealist, he was held to sane study and advocacy of practical principles of government and progress by the maxim that the common good arises from the good of each and all, and the good of each subsists from the common good. And thus the lawyer became a teacher and organizer of social reforms, an advocate of national and international reforms, a teacher of religion, the organizer of the "World's Congress Auxiliary" and of the Parliament of Religions.

Charles Carroll Bonney was born at Hamilton, N. Y., September 4, 1831. He was educated in the public schools, in Hamilton Academy, and by private study with many advantages from Madison, now Colgate University. From this university he received the degree of LL.D. He was a teacher in the public schools and in Hamilton Academy until he moved to Peoria, Ill., where he became public lecturer on education for Peoria County in 1852. He took a leading part in establishing the educational system of Illinois, conducting the correspondence which resulted, in 1852, in the first state convention for educational purposes. Mr. Bonney had begun the reading of law when but seventeen, and in 1852 was admitted to the Illinois bar, and to that of the supreme court in 1866. He was president of the Illinois State Bar Association and vice-president of the American Bar Association in 1882, and took a leading part in the proceedings of both bodies. He removed to Chicago in 1860, and continued to reside there until the time of his death, August 23, 1903. He became one of the most eminent and distinguished of the Chicago bar and a writer on legal and political subjects, of wide reputation and influence.

His connection with the Law and Order League and its growth under his inspiration and organizing ability into a national

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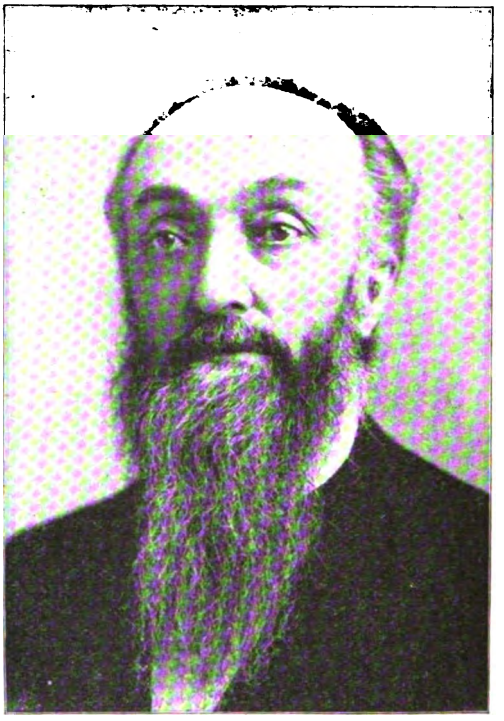
movement, forecast the powers as an advocate of human welfare and an organizer of human coöperation which marked the great achievement of his life in the World's Congresses of 1893 in connection with the World's Columbian Exposition.

The date of the suggestion by Mr. Bonney, the details of organization and preparation, the enthusiasm of co-workers in every department of human interest, and the printed literature of the whole great movement are easily to be found by those who are interested. He believed that if the representatives of the various Christian denominations and of the oriental religions could be brought together to tell each the faith that is in him, not to debate nor to legislate, but to testify, such a large spirit of brotherhood would advance the deepest interests of the world. Mr. Bonney's faculty of method and power of organization, his gentleness and generosity, his clearness of perception and genial optimism, his grasp of the situation and skill in saying the right word, showed the peculiar fitness of his character for this supreme exhibition of the Columbian year.



C. C. BONNEY
Founder of the World's Parliament of Religions

Boris Sarafoff

A Patriot who would Emancipate through Terror

IT seems hardly credible that the peace of Europe can be threatened by a man barely thirty-one. Even more incredible does it appear that in our present day and generation a patriot should be deliberately maintaining a reign of terror. Yet such is indeed the case. Boris Sarafoff, commander-in-chief of the Macedonian revolutionary forces, is just now the pivotal as well as the most picturesque personality in Europe, and following the example of those other young patriots, St. Just, Robespierre and Danton, he is set upon terrorizing Macedonia into liberty.

Sarafoff was born in the village of Ljubjechovo in Macedonia. Revolution ran in his very blood; for generations his ancestors had been leaders in revolts against the Turks, and when only five years of age he saw his father and grandfather arrested on the charge of treason and dragged away in chains, beaten with leather whips. The two were soon released, but the boy never forgot the brutality of the Turks or the anguish of his mother.

A short time later, as life became unbearable in Ljubjechovo, the family removed to Neurokop. There the elder Sarafoff was appointed head master of the Bulgarian school. Boris showed so much ability that his father sent him, when only ten years old, to the Bulgarian high school at Salonika. Four years later young Sarafoff, then a schoolboy, standing in the crowd assembled to watch some newly arrived Bulgarian prisoners, saw his father and grandfather among the sufferers. He tried to break through the cordon of Turkish guards but was beaten back by the horsemen's whips. Nothing daunted he made his way to the prison and demanded admittance. The sentinel drove him away, calling him a Christian dog. Again and again the boy returned to the prison gates and pelted the sentry with stones. For this he was taken before the officer of the watch, who demanded what the young rebel had to say for himself. Sarafoff answered: "May God so ordain that you yourself will one day be cast into prison and that

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BORIS SARAFOFF

In the uniform of a Bulgarian officer

your children will be driven from the prison gates without being permitted to see you and relieve the sufferings of your captivity."

Amused at the boy's audacity, the Turkish officer granted him leave to visit his father and grandfather. On entering the cell, Sarafoff, according to the custom of the country, kissed the hands of his father and grandfather and swore a solemn oath to wreak dire vengeance for their sufferings on the Turks. The older men laughed at his vehemence, little dreaming how faithfully he was to fulfill his oath.

At the end of the year the father and grandfather of Sarafoff were banished to Asia Minor by administrative order without any semblance of a trial, and young Sarafoff, as he stood on the quay watching the departing ship, renewed his oath for revenge on the hated Turks. From that day to this, the desire for revenge has been his ruling passion.

Sarafoff prepared himself for his life-work of vengeance in the most business-like way. He studied feverishly and devoted his holidays to making long journeys on foot in the Turkish vilayets of Uskub, Monastir, Salonika and Adrianople in order to gain familiarity with all the highways and byways of the country where he intended to execute his designs. In these wanderings he became acquainted with many remote hiding-places and miles of hidden paths which he made use of in his subsequent raids into the heart of Turkey. At the age of eighteen he obtained admission to the Military Academy at Sofia, with a view to securing a thorough training that would enable him to wage war on the Turks most effectively. He passed his examinations with honor and distinction, but in his zeal to learn all details of the military profession, he served six months as a Bulgarian private, familiarizing himself with the life and duties of men that should be under his command. Finally, when twenty years old, he became a lieutenant in the First Bulgarian Infantry, and served in the army for three years. The garrison life, however, was too tame for his restless spirit; so in 1895, when the Macedonian question began to draw the attention of the world, deeming the time ripe to begin the blood-feud he had sworn, he threw up his commission in the Bulgarian army to devote himself to the new cause.

He gathered a hundred young men of his own age and position in life, organized them into a military company, drilled them incessantly, and inspired them with his own enthusiasm. This band was the nucleus of the great revolutionary force with which Sarafoff is to-day waging war on the sultan and menacing the peace of Europe.

On July 1, 1895, Sarafoff led eighty of his little company over the Turkish border, and, after marching twelve days by secret paths he had learned so well in former years, he surprised the important town of Melnik. He cut all the telegraph wires, captured the Turkish prefect and his guard of fifteen gendarmes, whom he cast into the jail after releasing the Bulgarian prisoners; and slaughtered half the Turkish garrison of one hundred men. Then he burned all the government buildings, and, in a fiery speech to the inhabitants assembled in the market-place, proclaimed a new crusade against the Turks. The next morning Sarafoff's little troop escaped into the

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mountains from a large Turkish force dispatched from Serres.

The story of the guerrilla warfare with which Sarafoff harassed the Turks incessantly for the next four years, with all his marvelous feats of arms, and his thousand and one hairbreadth escapes, would fill volumes of intense interest. His character and deeds constitute a theme worthy of the pen of Henryk Sienkiewicz. His descents upon Turkish garrisons were sudden and terrible and they could never foresee where he would strike next. Each raid was a madly reckless undertaking for everyone connected with it. He would swoop down on a Turkish town, slaughter the garrison, stir up the inhabitants to active discontent and then vanish before an effective pursuit could be organized. However hard-pressed, he always managed to escape with little or no loss. He took immense booty and hid or distributed arms and ammunition for the use of revolutionist recruits. The Turkish troops hunted him in vain through the border passes. Whenever the game grew too hot he slipped over into Bulgaria. His achievements as a partisan leader during these four years captivated the imaginations of the Macedonians and Bulgarians. He became a popular idol and his name became a household word through all the Slavic population of the Balkan peninsula. The Turkish government paid him a compliment by offering 100,000 francs for his head. But while Sarafoff was making his reputation as a partisan leader, he was also busily intriguing to strengthen and extend the scope of the crusade. The great novelist, Sienkiewicz, has never devised the plot of a romance with greater symmetry and consistency than Sarafoff has planned his Macedonian revolution. He completed the organization of the Macedonian Revolutionary Committee and became its president in 1899. Then he established a twofold policy. The first principle of this was that all Macedonia must be forced to join in an unremitting guerrilla warfare against the Turk. Knowing, however, that this guerrilla warfare could effect no permanent conquest, there had naturally to be recourse to the second principle: that the Balkans must be embroiled in a manner so shocking as to bring the powers upon the unspeakable Turk.

An editor in Bucharest, Roumania, denounced the committee in his paper, and a Bulgarian there sold to the porte the secrets of the committee's rifle smuggling. These two men were secretly tried by the inner council of the committee and condemned to death for disloyalty to the revolutionary cause. On the streets of Bucharest, the man that sold the secrets was brained with a hatchet and the editor, while walking with his wife and child, was shot through the back. For a wonder, the assassins were captured, and their confession imputed the responsibility for the murder to Sarafoff, who, the prisoners declared, had also marked the kings of Servia and Roumania for assassination. This was to prevent those two countries from invading Bulgaria in case the latter should march to the aid of Macedonia. The prisoners were convicted and Sarafoff was sentenced to life imprisonment. Roumania demanded that he be tried in Bulgaria, and forwarded the evidence but not the witnesses. Emerging seemingly from nowhere, Sarafoff boldly entered Sofia, where, after a trial of six months, which made his name generally known in Europe for the first time, he was acquitted.

During this trial the conservative revolutionists had overridden his adherents, and deposed him from the presidency of the committee. Immediately on his release, however, Sarafoff disappeared with the extremist members, and soon a new committee, which quickly became the dominant one, resumed the measured, inexorable operation of the old revolutionary machine. Though the two committees of revolutionists for a time worked parallel, but independently, the terror of Sarafoff and his agents won the day. The two committees have recombined and their united forces are working more swiftly and violently every day.

Nevertheless, having long ago organized practically all Bulgarian Macedonia on the side of his blood and iron policy, Sarafoff still withholds the word of command for the rising of the whole country.

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Manuel Candamo

Peru's New President

THE new president of Peru was inaugurated September 8. He was elected in May, as the candidate of the Civil party of Peru, of which for more than ten years he has been the leader.

Señor Manuel Candamo was born in Lima in 1842. He was educated in that city and later studied in Paris. He traveled extensively in Europe and Asia, visiting China and Japan. On his return to Peru he was appointed secretary of the Peruvian legation in Chile. In 1871 he joined the Civil party and from that time he has been a prominent figure in politics. He became a successful man of business and was elected mayor of Lima. He fought in the war with Chile, and after the fall of Lima he was a prisoner until the signing of the treaty of Ancon, in October, 1883.

MANUEL CANDAMO
New President of Peru

The chief events in Señor Candamo's career may be briefly mentioned. As a partisan of General Caceres he aided in reorganizing the Civil party, and in 1886 he was elected senator from Lima. Soon afterward he was chosen president of the Senate. In 1893 he was nominated for the presidency by the Civil party. In 1895 he became president of the Junta and minister of foreign affairs. In 1897 he was elected senator from Lambayeque and president of the Senate, and afterward became a member of the Council of State. He has served several terms as president of the Lima Chamber of Commerce and has been president of the Benevolent Society. He has also been connected with several financial and commercial enterprises in Peru. Because of his ability and honesty he enjoys the confidence of men in all parties. He has no enemies.

Albert B. Storms

A Methodist Minister Becomes President of a State College of Agriculture

REV. ALBERT BOYNTON STORMS, A.M., D.D., president-elect of the Iowa State College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts, was born and reared in the country. He graduated from the University of Michigan in 1884, receiving the degree of B.A. In 1893, upon the completion of graduate studies in history, literature and philosophy, he took the degree of A.M. from the same institution. In 1901, Lawrence University conferred

ALBERT B. STORMS
President of the Iowa State Agricultural College

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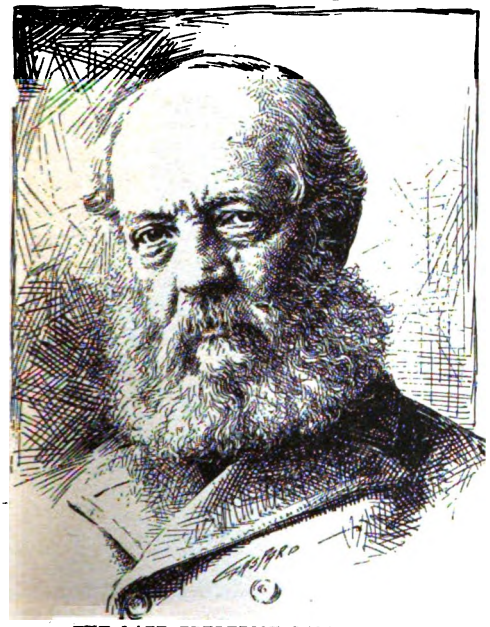
upon him the degree of Doctor of Divinity. He entered the Detroit Conference of the Methodist Episcopal Church in 1884, and spent fourteen years in the active ministry of that church in his native state. Eight years of this time he was pastor of Woodward Avenue and Cass Avenue churches in the city of Detroit. From Detroit he was called to the pastorate of the First Methodist Episcopal church in Madison, Wis., and from that church came to the First Methodist church in Des Moines. He has just completed three years in the pastorate of the latter church.

While Dr. Storms' education and work have been entirely in the ministry, he has had the deepest interest in educational progress and educational problems. A



THE LATE FREDERICK LAW OLMSTED
The Most Eminent American Landscape Architect

classical culture has not blinded him to the value of industrial and technical education. He was interested in the introduction of manual training into the public schools of Detroit, and gave it encouragement. He believes in the extension of university influence to meet the needs of life, and in the cultural, as well as the practical value of science. He comes to his new field of action with fine enthusiasm for the kind of work being done at the Iowa State College, and with large faith in its future.

C. OLIVER ISELIN
Managing Owner of the Reliance

LORD NORTHCOTE
Governor of Bombay, who will succeed Lord Tennyson as Governor-General of the Commonwealth of Australia in December

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THE MAKING OF TO-MORROW

How the World of To-Day is Preparing for the World of To-Morrow

Rest Rooms for Farmers' Wives

IN woman's work for woman there has been no finer idea originated than the idea which came to the woman who originated rest rooms for farmers' wives and daughters. The Women's Club of Rochester, Minnesota, opened the first of these veritable havens of rest in 1896.

Rochester is a town of about seven thousand people, and may be characterized as a market town, as its prosperity depends almost entirely upon the agricultural interests of the surrounding country, which is thickly settled. On week days farmers' wagons and carriages line the main street, and those vehicles bring to town many women with their children. When the shopping is done they have often hours to wait before their husbands, brothers and fathers are ready to go home. It was this fact that inspired the Women's Club to its present work.

"Where shall these women spend those weary hours? Where will they put the baby, which had to come because there was no one at home to leave it with? Where shall they eat the lunch they have brought?" In the summer they might remain out of doors, but in winter time their only refuge was the grocery store.

In the larger cities the department stores have solved these questions by providing furnished waiting-rooms, nurseries, lunchrooms, and dressing-rooms in their own buildings; but for the country merchant this is manifestly impossible.

REST ROOM FOR WOMEN AND CHILDREN AT ROCHESTER, MINN.
The ground floor of this building forms the first Rest Room for Farmers' Wives in the United States, so far as is known

After pondering upon these conditions the club finally decided to make a beginning by opening a reception-room. Their first step was to interview the leading business men of the town and ascertain their opinion of the enterprise. Almost all of them promised generous financial support, and a subsequent canvass of those business houses resulted in a pledge of $40 per month. This sum, it was

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found, would pay the rent of a commodious room on the ground floor of a building situated on the principal business street and leave a nice margin for incidental expenses.

The room secured was of good size, and it was thought best to partition it off into four rooms, using the front one for a reception-room, another for a lunchroom, and then have a dressing-room and toilet-room. All were freshly painted and papered. Chairs, lounges, sofas, desk, cradles, dining and center tables, children's rockers, rugs, pictures, etc., were contributed by club members. The various merchants gave other necessary articles, such as cooking and heating stoves, a clock, matting, tinware, china, silver, etc.

It was agreed that two club members should preside over the rooms each day, and that they should be kept open from nine o'clock in the morning till six o'clock at night. A checking-room was established, where wraps and packages could be left safely, and women were allowed to make tea and coffee in the lunch-room, if they desired.

While the use of this room is absolutely free, a mite box is placed in an accessible position, for the convenience of those who desire to contribute toward its support.

In speaking of this rest-room, which is the particular pride of the Rochester Women's Club, as well as of the town, one of its members said:

> There is a homelike feeling about the place, which is very pleasant, and it is gratifying to see how freely the women come and go, sometimes stopping for only a moment to leave extra wraps, or packages, sometimes giving the children necessary care, or putting the baby to sleep in one of the cradles; sometimes waiting for train or friends, eating lunches, arranging disordered hair or apparel in the dressing-room, and in fact, making of the rooms just exactly such a place as we hoped for. Then there is another phase of the work which is also gratifying, and that is the cultivation of the social spirit, and the breaking down of the barriers between the women of the city and country. Membership in the Women's Club is open to all ladies from out of town who desire to avail themselves of the privilege and many are thus drawn into closer connection with us.

The Rochester rest-room was a success from the start, sixty people having visited it the first day it was opened, and it has continued to grow in popularity.

Those in smaller towns may feel, after reading the foregoing, that they can not have a rest-room because of a lack of the support of numbers, but this is not true, as is proved by the establishment and successful conduct of a rest-room in Sauk Center, Minnesota. Sauk Center is a town of about two thousand people. It was the Gradatim Club, composed of but thirty members, which undertook the task of establishing and maintaining a rest-room. It was opened in the spring of 1901, and, according to a record which has been kept, there were 1,009 visitors during the first twelve months, and 1,773 during the subsequent eight months, which proves that it has grown in favor.

In this case, too, the business men were asked to contribute towards its support, and housekeepers were invited to donate furnishings. The club found a large room, fifteen by twenty-nine feet, in a good location, which they secured at the low rent of $5 per month. The owner refused to make needed repairs, but the women were not to be daunted, but scrubbed and painted it and hung pictures on the walls, making it as attractive as possible. It was decided to hire a matron for the room, and a motherly, big-hearted woman was secured for $10 per month. She lived in the rooms and was furnished light and fuel, and, of course, had no rent to pay. The first winter they found the room hard to heat, which was discouraging, but the owner was finally prevailed upon to repair the roof and build a new chimney, which helped very much.

The first fifteen months the room was supported by subscription and gifts, but in the summer of 1902 it was decided to ask the city to help out. The mayor and councilmen were interviewed in the hope that they would appropriate enough to pay rent. The club's surprise and gratification can be imagined when it was learned that these officials came nobly forward with an appropriation of $20 per month, with the stipulation that the club committee would continue to carry on the work.

There are a number of western towns which now support rest-rooms, but, so far as is known, none east of Ohio. Wherever there are farmers' wives and daughters to do trading and shopping in the towns and villages, there is need of a rest-room,

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and the club women who live in these places can find no better or more necessary field for their labors than to start one. Thus they may help in the work which is slowly progressing of bringing the country wife and daughter out of the isolated and companionless thralldom that has discouraged her for ages, and establishing a closer union between them and the city women, who also long for an outlet to their restlessness. To bring these two classes of women together is of untold benefit to both. Some of these tired, wornout country women need only the sunshine of good-fellowship and a little "drawing out" to make their muscles less tired, their nerves less tightly strung, to clear their brains and revive their hearts.

The Present Status of Prohibition

NOTWITHSTANDING conflicting evidence prohibition seems to be making some progress year by year. Though the Prohibitionists have lost growth during the past year in some states, in others they have made substantial gains. In the old country prohibition has hardly gained a footing, although many Europeans are waking up to the need of temperance reform. In Great Britain total abstainers are comparatively few, but in some of the British colonies—New Zealand, Australia, and Canada—the prohibition sentiment is a power to be reckoned with.

According to statistics recently gathered, about thirty million people are living in prohibition territory in this country. This is more than one-third of the entire population. In Maine, Kansas and North Dakota they have prohibition by state law, and in thirty-eight other states they have it by local option. The *Liquor Dealers' Gazette* recently compiled a list of seven hundred and seventy-five counties and 4,233 cities and towns under prohibition. At the present time (September 1, 1903), however, these figures need revision, because of additions in New Hampshire and Vermont, where license laws were passed last winter. There have been additions, also, in Texas and elsewhere to the number of counties voting this summer for prohibition. Iowa and South Dakota are usually classed as prohibition states, for prohibition prevails throughout these commonwealths, except in the cities and some river towns.

As might be expected, the public sale of liquor is prohibited more generally in the South than in the North. The reasons assigned are that the North has been Europeanized to a considerable extent by foreigners who have brought their drinking habits with them, while the population of the South is made up chiefly of native Americans, who as a rule believe in temperance; the southerners also adopt prohibition as a measure of defence, believing that liquor must be kept away from the negro. It has been stated that the southern states have twenty-seven thousand saloons, while New York State has thirty-four thousand. Of all fields for absolute prohibition the South is regarded as the most promising.

In Alabama there are local option laws in force in fifty out of sixty-five counties, and the movement for state prohibition is under way. In Arkansas forty-four counties have total prohibition and two counties partial prohibition, while twenty-nine counties have license; in Delaware fully half of the state is under prohibition, and there is no local option; in Florida thirty out of forty-five counties; in Georgia one hundred and three counties out of one hundred and thirty-seven, and the sentiment is strong for state prohibition. In Kentucky forty-seven counties have total prohibition, thirty-five counties have one licensed town each, nineteen counties have two licensed towns each, while eighteen counties are unrestricted. In Louisiana twenty out of fifty-nine counties have prohibition, and there is no local option; in Maryland fifteen out of twenty-four counties have prohibition, and there is no local option. In Mississippi sixty-five out of seventy-five counties have prohibition, and a movement for state prohibition has been launched. In Missouri eighty-four out of one hundred and fifteen counties have prohibition. In North Carolina sixty out of ninety counties have prohibition, and a campaign has been started for constitutional prohibition. In South Carolina the state dispensary law is in force, and the net profit from the sale of liquor and beer go to the school fund. In Tennessee seventy out of ninety-six counties have prohibition, and 5,500 cities and towns

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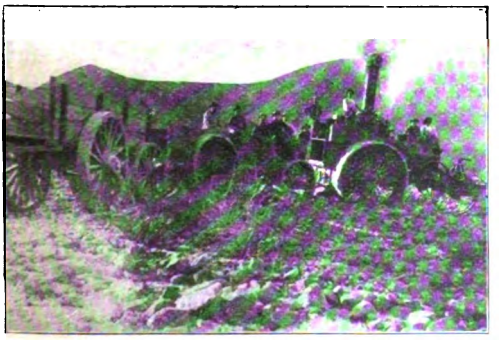
out of 5,508; in Texas one hundred and forty counties have total prohibition, and sixty-two out of the one hundred and four remaining counties have partial prohibition. In Virginia fifty-five out of one hundred and six counties have prohibition, and Richmond is the only large town without prohibition. In West Virginia forty out of fifty-four counties have prohibition.

In Montana prohibition and local option have made little headway, but the other states (not already mentioned) have fallen in line for laws favoring prohibition in towns and cities, as follows: California, in one hundred and seventy-five cities and towns; Colorado, fifty; Connecticut, seventy-five; Illinois, six hundred and fifty; Indiana, one hundred and forty; Massachusetts, two hundred and sixty-three; Minnesota, four hundred; Michigan, four hundred; New Jersey, two hundred; Ohio, five hundred; Nebraska, two hundred and fifty; New York, seven hundred.

Alaska's prohibition law has been repealed, and a high-license law enacted. The government has put prohibition in force in Tutuila, but not in Porto Rico and the Philippines.

Traction Engines Widely Used in California

SOME time ago an article appeared in these columns describing the tractors used for farming operations on the Pacific coast, but this is only one feature of their utility. They carry logs and timber from the woodland to the mill and market, pull wagon-loads of ore from the mines to the smelters, and even move dwelling houses and other buildings from place to place. As the photographs show, they are truly ubiquitous machines.



TRACTION ENGINE IN CALIFORNIA MINING COUNTRY

A LUMBER TRAIN IN THE CALIFORNIA SAND HILLS

Ranging from forty to one hundred and ten horse-power, they will climb mountain roads in California which would stall the modern touring car, for the reason that their wide tires and powerful engines give them such an advantage. A large number are now in use in the woodlands of California and Oregon. Such is their power that they can be taken literally into the heart of the forest where there is not even a footpath, and will haul loads of from twenty to one hundred tons over underbrush and other obstacles, breaking a way through the woodland by their own power. On the red clay roads which are called highways in the hill section of California, they will haul a train of from four to eight cars piled high with lumber at a rate of from three to six miles an hour. When one comes to a hill which it cannot ascend with its freight, the tractor goes to the top alone. Each is provided with a heavy rope or wire cable attached to a drum. This is unwound, fastened to the cars at the bottom and the tractor turned into a hoisting engine, the motive power being used to pull the weight up the hill by means of the cable.

In addition to moving houses, some of the loads which they haul are indeed unique. Not long ago one of the lumbering companies decided to build a logging railroad through a tract of land which it owns. The nearest railroad station to its property was several miles distant, and not only the rails, but the cars and even the locomotives were taken to the place by one of the tractors, the locomotive being mounted on a huge truck built especially for the purpose. One of the largest of the

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steam autos was also placed to a novel use in San Francisco. During the strike of the teamsters' association in that city, a reel of cable was unloaded at the docks for one of the street railway companies who required it to replace a cable which had broken. It was necessary to make the repairs at once or the car service on a number of the principal streets must be suspended. The distance from the wharf to the power-house where the cable must be taken was over a mile and up one of the steepest hills in San Francisco. Full fifty horses would have been required to haul the load, which weighed over twenty tons, but not even a pair could be obtained on account of the strike. As a last resort the idea of using the tractor as a substitute for the horses was thought of, but the nearest machine was at Stockton, Cal., where they are manufactured. A telegram was sent to Stockton, asking for the largest tractor available. As soon as the message was received, the machine was "fired up," and in twenty-four hours afterward had reached San Francisco, going along the highways, as it was too heavy to be placed on board an ordinary railroad car. Although it had traveled nearly one hundred miles, the engineer lost no time in hitching on to the reel, and two or three hours later the cable was being paid out at the power station.

Philadelphia's Permanent Commercial Exhibition

THE determination of American business men to have a permanent commercial museum in this country has at last reached a successful climax. Thanks to the action of the Pennsylvania Legislature in appropriating the necessary money, a magnificent exhibition, devoted to the interests of the commercial community, is now assured. Already experts are at work preparing the building, unpacking a vast collection of exhibits, sorting curios, setting up cleverly made models that illustrate costumes in every corner of the earth, classifying raw material and arranging minerals of every description.

BUILDING FOR PHILADELPHIA'S PERMANENT COMMERCIAL EXHIBITION

This permanent commercial exhibit is to be set up in the Exposition building, Philadelphia. The doors will be thrown open for the first time to the public about November 1, if nothing unforeseen happens. It will be many months, perhaps years, before the exhibits will be all in place.

To enable a merchant to see the progress made in any trade in which he may happen to be interested, it is intended to trace the history of the various articles of international commerce. For instance, a rubber merchant will find a complete illustration of the rubber industry, from the

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MODELS SHOWING TRIBAL COSTUMES
For Philadelphia's Commercial Exhibition

time the raw material is obtained to the stage when the rubber is ready for the market. This will be shown both by photographs and by means of models at work just as they appear in forest or village in the rubber country. An importer whose business lies with the merchants of the Orient may study various phases of life in the East. Miniature streets will be seen, fashioned exactly as in the Chinese towns, with natives drinking tea outside the tea houses, at work in the tea gardens, toiling in the potteries or at home in their houses. Some of these models of Chinese and Japanese villages, which were obtained by the directors of the museum from the Paris exposition, are marvels of ingenuity and patient industry.

In the same way the exporter of American goods to Africa, or the merchant who finds it profitable to buy ivory, wood, hemp or textiles from the African tribes, will be able to study these industries at the African department of the exhibition, where samples of the material used, from the raw state to the finished article, will be on view, and native figures, wearing the very articles bought from European and American exporters, will be set up in glass cases for visitors to examine.

An important branch of the exhibition work will be the educational aid to schools. The directors propose to supply the schools with photographs and spare material for the use of lecturers who may wish to explain the peculiarities of foreign markets to the future merchant princes of the country.

A large addition to the collections of the exhibition will be made when the St. Louis fair closes, for the entire exhibit from the Philippines is to be divided between the Commercial Museum and the Smithsonian Institute.

A Convention of the Blind

THE seventh annual meeting of the American Blind People's Higher Education and General Improvement Association was held in Chicago, August 25-27. Among the members present were representatives from nearly every profession, and many of the delegates are well-known promoters of the movement for the education of the blind.

The organization was started with the object of having Congress pass a bill providing aid to blind persons seeking a higher education. The government is urged to appropriate $75,000 to be used as a scholarship fund. It is proposed that ambitious blind persons of both sexes, selected by a national commission, shall be educated in the best colleges of the country.

At present there are about forty schools for the elementary education of the blind, but few of the students have the means to continue their studies without national aid. The government grants this assistance to the deaf, and the blind believe they are more deserving of help than the deaf.

The progress of this bill was outlined in the report presented at the opening session of the convention by Mr. E. J. Nolan, a blind attorney of Chicago, who said it had been before Congress the past four years. The measure was favorably reported by the House Committee at the last session, and its prospects seemed good until it encountered the opposition of the American Association of Instructors of the Blind, who objected to having a national commission control the selection of candidates for scholarships, insisting that this should be left to local selection in each state.

The delegates applauded a paper by Henry Edwards favoring pensions for the blind. In his address on "Pensioning the Blind," he said pensions to adult blind persons were granted by Ohio, New York city, in parts of the New England states, and in England. In the last session of the

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Illinois Legislature a bill was passed appropriating $150 annually for every deserving blind person in this commonwealth. "If an Indian," Mr. Edwards asked, "can be cared for by the government when he is incapacitated only by indolence, why cannot blind people be cared for by the same means?"

Several papers were devoted to the subject of remunerative occupations for people who have lost their eyesight. Miss Lillian C. Smith, Conservatory of Music, Peoria, Ill., spoke on "Vocal Culture as a Profession for the Blind." Mr. J. Newton Breed, Taftville, Vt., vigorously combated the view that the blind are helpless. He declared that there are few trades and professions which the blind may not enter. He insisted that sightless people have mastered the details of many callings and succeeded in law, medicine, music, as well as in numerous mechanical pursuits. He recommended persons of this class to engage in housekeeping.

The delegates listened to an important report, advocating common print for the blind. A commission was appointed by the association to try to harmonize the five principal systems of "finger print." The president of the association, Ambrose M. Shotwell, Lansing, Mich., is at the head of this commission. In explaining the plan to combine the merits of the principal systems, he held that a great gain would result for blind students working in libraries and colleges.

"There are now," he said, "five leading systems of print in use by the blind—the American and the European Braille, the New York point, the Roman line type and the William Moon system. Each of these has its advantages and each has a large following among educated blind persons. That is what makes the difficulty in trying to harmonize them.

"Most persons realize the advantages that would come from the use of a single system, but each faction wants to adhere to its own. Our commission was appointed for the purpose of selecting the best points in each system. If this were done and the educators and publishers for the blind would join in the movement, the work of educating people of this class would be simplified. As it is now, many good books are printed in each system, but it would be helpful if all were of one system."

The officers of the association nominated for the coming year, to be voted for by mail, are: President, W. A. Kelly, St. Louis, I. A. Wilson, and Wallace McGill, Leavenworth, Kan.; corresponding secretary, Miss Lina Owens, Macon, Ga., Lew Chase, Elsie, Mich., and Fred Hoar, Trimountain, Mich.; official editor, Miss Georgia Turner, St. Louis, and Miss Ritten, Wauwatosa, Wis.

HON. VOLNEY W. FOSTER

The International Commission of Archaeology and Ethnology

A MOVEMENT promising to effect much in the way of stimulating scientific and historical research throughout the western hemisphere, and perhaps even more in the direction of bringing about close and harmonious relations among the several American republics, was initiated at the second International American Conference in the City of Mexico in January, 1902. The first step was taken by Hon. Volney W. Foster, of Chicago, one of the representatives of the United States in the conference; with the coöperation of Señor Don Alfredo Chavero and others, he introduced a resolution providing for an international commission of archæology, which was adopted by the conference and recommended to the participating countries.

The first of the American republics to take action in accordance with the recommendation of the conference was Mexico; in October last President Diaz appointed

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PROFESSOR FRANCIS W. KELSEY

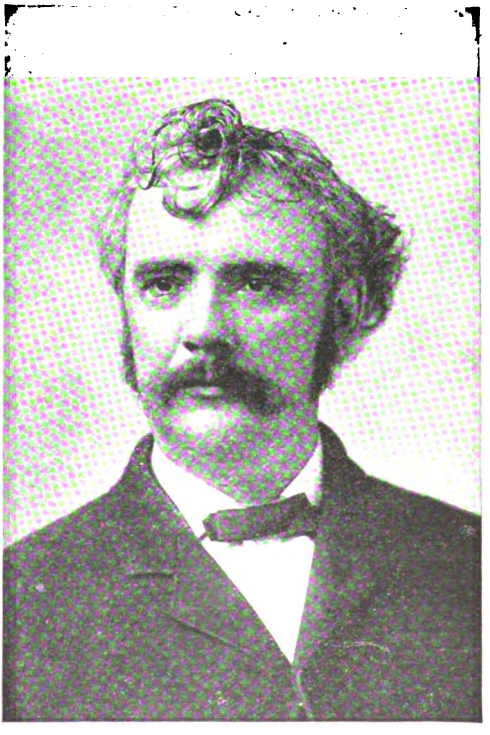
Señor Chavero as a representative on the part of the Mexican government to confer with similar representatives from other countries concerning procedure toward the organization of the commission. Dr. Chavero visited Washington and New York during the Congress of Americanists later in the same month, and seized the opportunity to confer with the leading archæologists of the western hemisphere. Before returning to Mexico, he framed a plan in accordance with which the Mexican ambassador to the United States, His Excellency Señor Don Manuel de Aspiroz, was more formally appointed as a representative of the commission and empowered to treat with the diplomatic representatives of other American countries.

Meantime the movement attracted some attention in the United States; at meetings in Pittsburg early in July both the American Association for the Advancement of Science and the American Anthropological Association passed resolutions approving the general plans for the commission; and on November 13, our Secretary of State, Hon. John Hay, appointed Dr. W. J. McGee as a representative on the part of the United States to confer with similar representatives from other American countries. Dr. McGee visited the City of Mexico, where he conferred with Señor Chavero and other officials interested in the project, including President Diaz; and after his return, he coöperated with Ambassador Aspiroz in developing a plan of organization for the commission.

On April 15, 1903, a meeting of the diplomatic representatives of the American republics was convoked in the State Department, at which the plan proposed by Messrs. Aspiroz and McGee was formally adopted for transmittal to the several governments. Of these, six or seven had already taken favorable action; and it was the expressed desire of the meeting to obtain formal approval from the governments of the remaining republics.

The second article of the regulations in which the plan of organization of the commission is embodied provides:

> The objects of the commission shall be, (1) to promote the unification of laws relating to antiquities in the western hemisphere; (2) to increase and diffuse knowledge concerning these antiquities and the aboriginal peoples by whom they were produced; (3) to awaken interest in



PROFESSOR W. J. MC GEE

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the vestiges of a vanishing race; (4) to unify museum methods throughout the American countries, and (5) to work for the establishment of one or more archæologic and ethnologic museums of international character.

On April 20, Hon. W. W. Rockhill, director of the Bureau of American Republics, formally communicated the action of the diplomatic representatives to the several legations; while the representative of the United States reported progress to our secretary of state and recommended the appointment of the three commissioners provided for in the plan of organization. June 23, 1903, action was taken in accordance with the recommendation, and the commissioners were appointed. They are Hon. Volney W. Foster, a representative of the United States in the international conference, to whose initiative the movement is due; Dr. W. J. McGee, president of the American Anthropological Association, long ethnologist-in-charge of the Bureau of American Ethnology, and now chief of the Department of Anthropology in the Louisiana Purchase Exposition, and Prof. Francis W. Kelsey, of the University of Michigan, secretary of the Archæological Institute of America. On August 7, the American commissioners met in Evanston, Illinois, with the object of studying the plan of organization and preparing themselves to meet their associates from other countries at the organizing session on the third Monday in December next. Corresponding action has been taken in Mexico and two or three other American republics, so that the outlook for the organization seems promising.

Teaching Cuban Children the Duties of Citizenship

An interesting series of photographs has just been received from Cuba by Wilson L. Gill, founder of the "school city" method of teaching children to understand municipal government. Apart from the difference in complexion of the school children and the tropical clothing they wear, the pupils are so similar in appearance to the average American school boy and girl that the photographs might well depict a school city session in any American town.

A SCHOOL CITY ELECTION, HAVANA

The plan is to organize the children each school, under a charter given by t school authorities, as citizens of a muni pality. These citizens elect a city counc who, in one phase of the plan, in tu elect a mayor, judge and other admin trative and judicial officers. The may appoints his cabinet and subordinates an has power to remove them at will. Nor nation by petition, proportional repres

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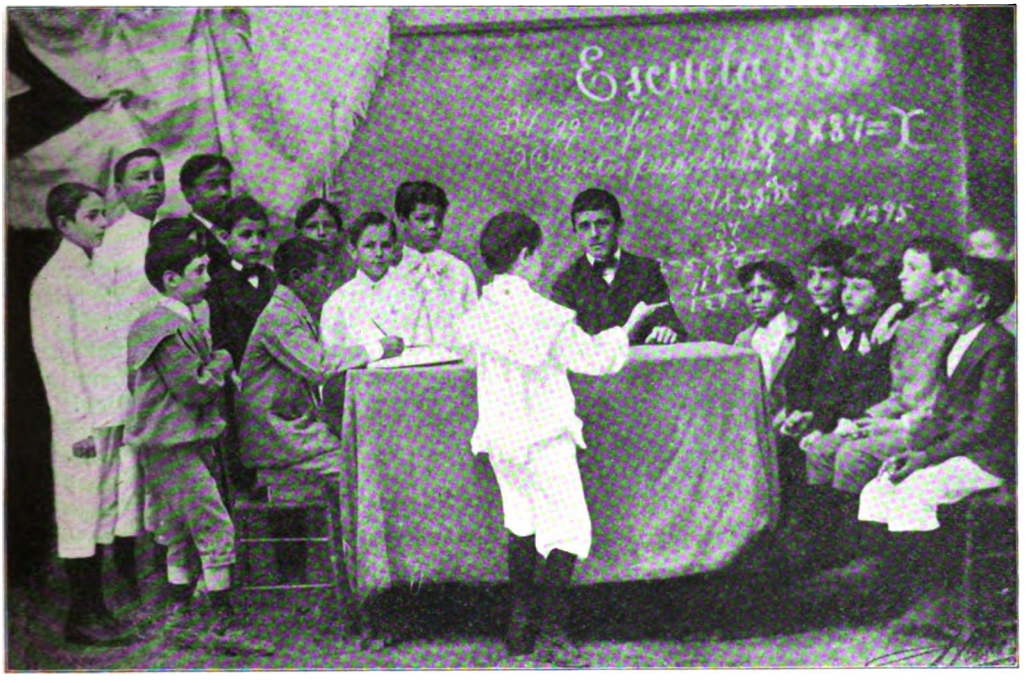
tation and the initiative and referendum enable the entire body of citizens to express and enforce its will at any time, either with or independent of its representatives. Elections, for several reasons, occur frequently—once in ten weeks—and experience has shown that it is desirable to make the term of the police officers short. A high ideal of gentility and kindness and tact is usually required in a candidate for the position of police officer, for the boy or girl who takes this place can abuse the position if not fitted for its duties.

The children are guided by the school teachers. The elections are conducted with perfect liberty of choice. The police court sessions are held without the embarrassment of the presence of an adult. The idea is to coach the children thoroughly in the duties of civic office. It has been found an admirable way of making boys and girls familiar with the municipal machinery of their town.

The charges upon which a police officer of the school city may hale a boy or girl before the bench include lack of cleanliness or unruly conduct in or out of school, the destruction of school property, or the use of profane language. The most extreme punishment is the withdrawal of the rights of citizenship, subject to the approval of the school principal.

One picture shows a meeting of the city council of school No. 15, Havana. The city clerk, a colored boy, who has to be elevated on two cigar boxes in order to enable him to reach the minute book comfortably, is gravely chronicling the doings of the council, and a Cuban boy in a white sailor suit is addressing the august assemblage, each member of which listens with an air of intelligent attention.

Perhaps the most interesting of all the pictures is one showing the girls voting at a school city election. One little Cuban girl is depositing her ballot in the basket, while another scores her vote on the blackboard. From the figures it seems to be about an even thing between Elvira Cachurro and Ysabel Rodriquez.



A MEETING OF A SCHOOL CITY COUNCIL, HAVANA

The school city method of training is rapidly finding favor in American schools. It is also to be introduced into the Philippines. In time the system is to be extended so that groups of schools can be formed into miniature state legislative bodies.

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American Missionary Interests in Macedonia and Bulgaria

FEW people realize the large investment America has made in missionary enterprises in Turkey. These certainly amount to a money value of $6,000,000. The fact that practically all of this investment has been made under the direction of one missionary society does not alter the necessity of protection.

GIRLS' BOARDING SCHOOL, MONASTIR

When it is considered that these missionary schools and churches have made possible what little trade exists between this country and Turkey by establishing a friendly understanding with the Turkish authorities it is idle to criticise the justice of demands for indemnity and the sending of warships to emphasize such demands.

In the Turkish district of Macedonia there are two centers, Monastir and Salonika, where the missionary work has been well established. Ten American men and women have their professional work in these places and seven of these are now at their posts notwithstanding the danger to their lives. In Monastir, described by Dr. F. E. Clark as the pleasantest and cleanest Turkish city of the many which he has visited, there is a well-conducted and influential girls' school, housed in a building which would be inviting in any part of the world. In a neighboring village is a center for the work among Albanians, conducted by Mr. Tsilka, the husband of the companion of Miss Ellen M. Stone during her captivity. At Salonika and in its vicinity the missionaries have established six churches, twenty-six Sunday schools and eleven common schools.

In Bulgaria there are permanent plants for educational and religious work at Samokov, Philippopolis and Sofia. Fifteen missionaries are in charge, only two of these being absent at the present time. The average attendance at the mission church in Sofia, Bulgaria's capital, is over six hundred. At Samokov there is a collegiate and theological institute and a girl's boarding school. Here also is the mission press which issues an abundance of valuable literature. "The largest and finest place of worship for evangelical Christians in all Bulgaria and Macedonia" is the new stone church at Philippopolis. The *Zornitza* is a periodical widely read by Bulgarians and Armenians. It issues from the mission headquarters in Philippopolis and is edited by a Bulgarian teacher, whose son is now a successful student in Harvard University.

The Tetanus Mortality

THE *Journal of the American Medical Association* publishes the results of its exhaustive investigations of tetanus, popularly known as lockjaw. It has done a public service by supporting its suggestion of forming an association to secure general and municipal legislation to stop the sale of blank cartridges and toy pistols, by a compilation of reliable statistics upon which to base such legislation. It records four hundred and fifteen cases this year. Ninety per cent were caused by toy pistols that explode blank cartridges, and most of the rest by common crackers. Almost all the victims were children, ninety-eight per cent of whom died in spite of antitoxin and all the new lockjaw remedies.

As regards distribution of cases the Journal finds that "the southern states are quite free from deaths of this sort, due to the fact that the blank cartridge celebration of Independence Day is not the custom in the South. A few such cases follow the Christmas celebration, but as the noise of this celebration is mostly obtained through other means, tetanus is not common. In the northern states the number varies somewhat according to the population of the states." Such terrible facts as these demand severe legislation against the manufacture and sale of blank cartridges.

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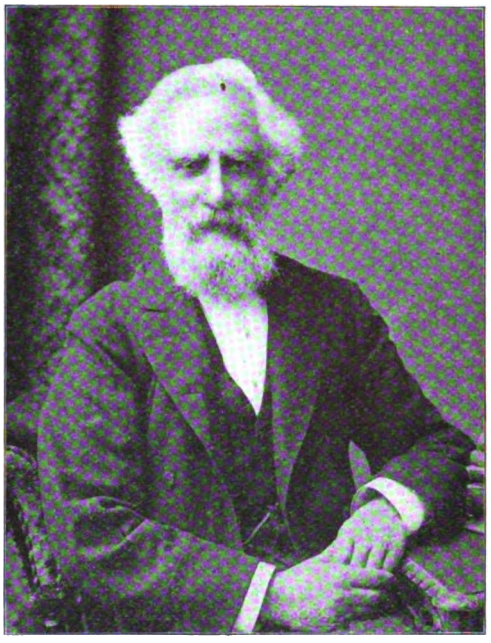
A Proposed Educational Concordat in England

PRACTICALLY all difficulties and controversies, with regard to education in the elementary schools of Great Britain, arise out of religion. The fact that the Church of England owns more than half the schools in the country and has always been unwilling to surrender them without full guarantees for doctrinal religious teaching accounts for the bitterness with which every educational battle is waged. Consequently very great interest is being shown in an endeavor, in which Lord Hugh Cecil, the fourth son of the Marquis of Salisbury, is a leader, to patch up peace on the basis that all schools shall be supported from public funds, and all denominations shall have the right to teach their own phase of religion to such children as are handed over to them by the parents.

On some such basis as this it is probable that the education difficulty, which has torn parties for over thirty years in England, will be ultimately settled. One compelling factor is the ever increasing difficulty that the Church of England finds in keeping up even the fabric of its school buildings as the demands of modern sanitation become more insistent.

Another force that is driving men's minds in the direction of some such settlement is the spread all over England of what is known as "passive resistance" to the payment of rates that go in support of sectarian schools. From this action the bulk of the nation holds aloof, looking on, it must be admitted, with something of wondering amazement at the determination and passion with which the Nonconformists pursue their campaign. Sections of the Free Churchmen steadily refuse to pay the rates, and their goods are seized and sold at auctions. At some of these sales there have been serious disturbances, and as the number of them increases weekly the scandal grows greater. Nor is it to be believed that the Nonconformists who have embarked on this policy will give way. They belong to a hardy, determined race, which, in the times of their fathers, put an end to rates for the support of the church. The new generation is equally willing to sacrifice its goods and to go on doing so until the education act is repealed.



PASSMORE EDWARDS
Who has founded many charitable institutions

A London Philanthropist.

AN interesting ceremony took place recently at the Passmore Edwards Social Settlement in Tavistock Place, London, where busts of Emerson and James Martineau were unveiled by Mr. Choate, the American ambassador, and Mrs. Humphry Ward. Mr. Choate, in remarking on the place Emerson holds in letters, spoke of the unifying influence of literature, and proceeded to remark that it was surely a sign of the sympathy and friendship of the two nations that the annual influx of Americans into Great Britain is increasing, and that this year it is greater than it has ever been.

The busts, executed by George Frampton, R.A., one of the most distinguished of English sculptors, are the gift of Mr. Passmore Edwards, at one time the proprietor of the London daily paper, the *Echo*. Mr. Edwards, the founder of the settlement, is a man of wealth and of wide sympathies, and is well known for his untiring generosity. He has founded twenty-six public free libraries, five art galleries and museums, sixteen hospitals and convalescent homes, several colonies for epileptics, and many trade schools, orphanages, etc.

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THE WORLD'S THOUGHT

Critical Estimates of Answers to Live Questions

Have We Gained the Sense of Corporate Honesty?

DURING the last few months we have been passing through an orgy of investigation. Labor unions, missionary societies, public institutions, city councils, departments of a federal government, all have been probed. It has been a miniature millennium for the cynic and a Black Friday for the optimist. And well it might be. If democracy is to continue it must have some other goal than an investigating committee.

These scandals which have come to light present rather different problems from scandals in the past. Almost without exception they arise from the relations of individuals with corporations. It is this that really gives significance to them. Evidently we need a new set of commandments. In an age of corporations honesty has ceased to be the simple thing it was when its demands were satisfied if a man did not steal his neighbor's horse, and gave sixteen ounces to the pound. Honesty nowadays concerns almost entirely that indeterminate matter, "graft."

We have long since learned that corporations have no souls, but we still expect them to have responsible auditors. When, however, the treasurer of an ecclesiastical organization burns his books in order that they may not be investigated, we see clearly that the children of light are still not so wise as the children of this generation. The representative of a business corporation grows rich without needing to burn his books. A purchasing agent regularly wins large sums while playing poker with a salesman, or his wife unexpectedly finds checks in her mail. Members of a commission of the government who are placed in such positions as to enable them to buy land at a price satisfactory to Indians, but really below market price, turn land dealers. The officers of great corporations whose stocks are listed buy or sell according to their knowledge of the prospects of a dividend. Are these men dishonest?

The difficulty in answering such a question lies very deep, too deep in fact for any one man to answer. Corporations must themselves decide how far it is right for their employees to exploit their business connections. The thing we wish to call attention to now is that it is a great mistake to think that because these investigations are going on the bottom has dropped out of the national morality. The mere fact that matters are being investigated and that men have been indicted argues to the contrary. As a whole the republic is honest and is determined to have honesty in its officials. It may be confused by the new moral problems arising from the new methods of conducting business, but its bewilderment is but momentary. We have our rascals, but we have our jails as well, and sooner or later, even before we have settled all questions of moral casuistry, the rascals and the jails will meet.

Will Generalities or Land Solve the Negro Problem?

WILLIAM PICKENS, a senior at Yale, who won the junior year prize for oratory, on September 3 addressed the Twentieth Century Club of Hartford, Conn. He said: "To some the negro is a monster, gnawing at the vitals of the republic. To others, it is the negro that is on the cross. The intelligent negro disagrees with both views. He recognizes the negro's faults, as well as his grievances. He demands no special consideration. He would make fitness of heart, head and hand the only qualification for any position. There is no doubt of our ability in the abstract intellectual gymnasium, but in the attainment of character, we sorely lack. The negro has to assimilate a civilization which is the tested product of ages. He can find no place to develop a civilization of his own, unless transported to

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another planet. When the negro was given freedom, he was like an infant with a gold dollar, who knows no use for it except as a plaything. Placed at the top, the negro had but one way to progress—backward. After a quarter of a century of political trickery the South tires, reconstructs its suffrage laws, and makes the ballot a prize for industry and character. The North washes its hands of the problem. The negro must fit himself for citizenship. Social distinctions among us must be based on character, first and last. Every negro criminal degrades himself, his race, and the white man's civilization. Yet he harms the country less than the mob. It slays not only the rascal, but respect for law."

There is no doubt that negroes need character, but then so do all of us. To attempt to solve the negro question on such generalities is to delay the solution. Educated negroes have an opportunity before them such as few men have ever faced. They must themselves help solve a problem which they themselves constitute. Too many of them are not content, like this college student, to face the facts. They appear to think that the negro problem is to be settled by convincing the public that they are just as good as white people. They might put their zeal and logic to better use. Few will deny that individual negroes have been and are the peers of individual whites, but this does not solve the race and class problems which confront us. Character must be something that fits a race to live on the earth quite as much as in heaven. The educated negro should remember that what is true of him is not true of his race as a whole. To be granted privileges a race must be able to master itself. Anglo-Saxons were once despised by their Norman masters, but they did not turn England into a lyceum with lectures on the rights of man. They simply got possession of land; and land, quite as much as character, will settle the negro question in America. A registered deed is a wonderful guarantor of the Declaration of Independence. As long as negroes as a race are content to be waiters and barbers and hired men generally they must expect to be treated as a socially inferior race. Let them turn farmers and they will plow the race problem under their furrows. Educated negroes need to insist upon the law of thrift and the gospel of agriculture quite as much as upon character in the abstract. A landless race is a lawless race.

Is the Dearth of Leaders to Be Regretted?

THE twelfth annual reunion of the descendants of Roger Williams was held at Providence, R. I., under the pines of the beautiful park which bears his name, September 3. The address by Governor Lucius F. C. Garvin dwelt upon the conditions which make possible such services as Williams rendered. "Reforms of vital importance to civilization are rare. Rarer is it that the time, place and man responsible for the momentous change can be named, as they can be in the case of Rhode Island's gift to the world—the separation of church and state. The reason that successful departures from the ruts of social custom have been so few is not that leaders do not appear, but that communities are unprepared."

Not for many a day has there been expressed a more comfortable sentiment for people possessed of an indomitable determination to reform somebody or something. If they do not get their names into universal histories it will be because their communities are unprepared!

But are we not overdoing our regret over the lack of leaders? May it not be that the absence of great masters is a tribute to the ability of society to guide itself? It takes a war to make a great general, and much as we admire great generals, if we must choose between them and peace, we choose peace. So, too, in the case of reformers. Their greatness is dependent upon the greatness of their reforms and that in turn upon the greatness of some abuse. Would you rather have Roger Williams and the bigotry that made him great, or ordinary Rhode Islanders and the tolerance which now streams benignantly from Boston?

The fact is, we are apt to shirk the homely responsibilities of every day life while we are waiting for great leaders to appear. A greater need than they just at present is men and women who will take up their next duty, whether they are led or not. Sufficient unto the day will be the leader thereof.

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Can Englishmen be Educated into Americans?

LAST year a commission of inquiry into industrial conditions in the United States was arranged and paid for by Mr. Alfred Mosely, of England. That commission was so satisfactory in its results that it is to be followed by a commission of inquiry into the educational systems of the United States in their bearing upon national commerce and industry. This new commission, which will start from Southampton, October 3, is composed of thirty-one representative educational leaders chosen from all over the country. Mr. Mosely states that he was first attracted to the importance of American methods by "seeing that the honor and the development of South African mining and engineering primarily belongs to America." Believing as he does that Englishmen are the finest workmen in the world, he also believes that they are decidedly behind America in matters of education. On a visit to America he believed that he discovered the basis of American success to be education; not the education in classics like that given in England, but an education that aimed at finding out a boy's strong points and inclinations and following them.

But Mr. Mosely is not alone among Englishmen in his admiration of American education. Sir Norman Lockyer, the astronomer, in his address as president of the British Society for the Advancement of Science, September 9, quite outdid him. Speaking of the "Influence of Brain Power on History," he declared Germany and the United States were surpassing Great Britain because of their vastly superior educational systems. He further declared that Great Britain was apparently not interested in improving the situation.

There is nothing surprising in this British philo-Americanism. Everybody knows that Great Britain has nothing to compare with either the public school system or the post-graduate university work of America. Nor is it surprising to find prominent Englishmen bemoaning their country's inferiority. Such "knocking," if we may be pardoned the expression, has become the fashion in England. The surprising thing is that Englishmen should not see that superior education is only one element in American and German success. The refusal to establish a non-ecclesiastical public school and the attempt to create modern men by the all but exclusive study of Greek, mathematics and philosophy are but symptoms of a state of mind.

The fact is your Englishman—in England, mind you, not in America or Canada or Australia—is immobile. He knows things are sweeping by him, but he would rather bemoan events than change his methods. Education of the higher sort would make him more versatile, but he must be regenerated before he dares choose such an education. We have grave doubts whether American education will produce Americans anywhere except in America.

Is the Sun Central in the Universe?

ALFRED RUSSEL WALLACE replies in the *Independent* to the many critics of his theory that our solar system is central in the universe. He admits that at the time when he first promulgated this surprising hypothesis some months ago, his own ideas of the subject were not thoroughly matured, and retracts several of the surmises offered in the original article. He maintains that his critics have treated him unfairly in emphasizing a single unqualified sentence as to the absolute centrality of the sun, whereas his real contention was not that the sun is the actual center of the universe, but that evidence points to a limitation of the stellar universe, instead of the infinite expanse of invisible stars formerly assumed. As for the criticism that the sun's central position, even if granted, is only temporary, because of the rapid motion of the sun through space, Mr. Wallace replies that the assumption that the sun's motion is constant in velocity and direction is unfounded, based upon observations of apparent motions of star groups, which may be real instead of apparent. So far as evidence goes, he asserts, the sun's motion is more probably in an elliptical orbit than in a straight line; and thus the hypothesis of an approximately central position is not disturbed. As to the practical bearing of the hypothesis on terrestrial conditions, Mr. Wallace says he had no clear ideas on

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the subject himself at the time of writing his first article, "Hence my vague and weak suggestion of stellar radiations affecting us." But he has now in the press a book on the subject which contains, according to his own opinion, a clear and satisfactory explanation of the whole problem. His theory seems to be, in brief, that on the earth only is found, or can be found, the necessary balance of physical and chemical conditions, temperature, air pressure, etc., for the maintenance of life. Speculations of this sort are in disfavor with astronomers, and it is no wonder that Mr. Wallace's crude generalizations in his first essay were met with contempt or indifference, for he spoke not merely as a layman, but as a layman who presumed to generalize upon astronomical data which astronomers themselves regard as ambiguous. A biologist, guessing about the stars, has no more claim to the confidence of the public than an astronomer dabbling in telepathy, like the ingenious Flammarion. We have no Bacons or Newtons to-day—men who can speak with authority in many branches of science. In fact, the more a man knows of the details of a single science the more does he hesitate to hazard any independent judgments upon the principles of another science. The exceptional scientist who rebels against this inevitable limitation of the specialist may be a genius, but he is more often a man who is losing his grip upon the latest methods and conceptions of his own science, and turns to other fields in order that he may be up to date somewhere.

Is Irrigation to Be Treated as a National Issue?

IN a paper upon the "Economics of Irrigation," read at the Irrigation Congress held in Ogden, Utah, September 15 to 18, Professor Richard T. Ely defined his subject as "the systematic treatment of the underlying principles of irrigation when it is viewed with respect to the relations which arise among men who are engaged in its practice." Professor Ely went on to say: "Strange as it may seem irrigation has received no attention at the hands of economists, although it has been practiced for thousands of years. This is due to the fact that economics has been developed by men familiar only with the humid regions. It is suggested that when among economists there are those familiar with irrigation, their science must be enriched on account of the new viewpoints which it offers. Irrigation is not something irregular and abnormal, but something regular and normal, both in past economic history and in the present agriculture of the world, and cannot therefore be neglected by economics.

"Among the theoretical problems may be mentioned: The origin and growth of property in water; the nature and causes of value as revealed by property in water; the problems of rent, profits and wages. All these questions can be treated in their purely scientific aspects, although they have their intensely practical side.

"Among practical problems in the economics of irrigation may be mentioned: Wastes in present irrigation methods and means to avoid them; alleged tendencies towards monopoly in the ownership of water; effects of various forms of property in water upon individual and general prosperity; the system of priorities; vested rights; coöperation and association; the question of interstate rights as illustrated in the suit of Kansas against Colorado.

In this paper Professor Ely has opened up a new department in economic science. In so doing he is moving still another step from the old economists who dealt with "economic" men. The men political economy now deals with are real flesh and blood. That is why every one is interested in it. Compare the days when we called it "the dismal science," with those in which we are beginning to see that an entire nation must be educated in its elements if it is to be successful in any line of activity. And who knows how far this scientific interest in irrigation may lead. We have our new Interstate Commerce Commission. Why should we not also have an Interstate Irrigation Commission? Unless all signs fail there will be need of it before many years.

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BOOKS AND READING

Books I Have Met

By Martha Baker Dunn

"WHAT is the use," a friend asked me once, "of having in one's library so many books which one never reads?" Not to be able to furnish some answer to a question argues a mind poor in resources, hence I replied with my usual prompt shallowness, although I had never considered the subject before.

"A library," I wisely asserted, "is like a town, this town, for instance, in which we live. Besides our own personal and intimate friends whom we see often, the population comprises a good many others just as worthy of our respect and liking whom, for one reason or another, we see only occasionally or not at all; yet they are necessary members of the body politic, and if they went away would be a loss to us, directly or indirectly."

I think the readiness of this reply to my friend's inquiry was due to the fact that I have long been in the habit of thinking of the books that inhabit my bookcases as dwellers in a community of which I, too, am a member.

In the quiet moments of the day, especially in that twilight hour which is apt to be the loveliest or the happiest hour of all, I often pace to and fro along the line of bookcases as if I were walking the streets of a town through whose lighted windows I may see the faces of familiar friends; and these friends respond to me as I can not be sure that others, however congenial, will do, with unfailing recognition of the mood in which I seek their companionship.

I sometimes amuse myself by noting just what page or sentence the fancy of the moment calls before my inward eye as I look at the closed volumes. Often enough the result is a curious melange of thoughts and scenes without sequence or consistency, as varied and as full of the human element as if the books themselves were sentient beings.

There is a little blue-green volume of selections from Browning that lives on a top shelf—as if the white flame of a man's soul might, even in life, rise to purer ether and dwell apart—and there, in my twilight hour, a window may open from whence I see

> "Some western cloud
> All billowy-bosomed, over-bowed
> By many benedictions—sun's
> And moon's and evening-star's at once;"

or, in more somber mood, I may pass at once to that "great wild country" where

> "Round about, solemn and slow,
> One by one, row after row,
> Up and up the pine trees go"

like a funeral procession of black priests up the mountain side.

Browning's door opens upon a wide range of the earth and its kingdoms and one may linger at will "where the quiet-colored end of evening smiles"—one of President Roosevelt's favorite loitering places—climb the Grammarian's mountain where stars come and go, or blow Childe Roland's horn in that last flaming moment of dauntless expectancy. Yet one never knocks at Browning's portal without feeling above and more than all the nobly human personality of the man. When the moment comes that "calls the glory from the gray" there is always the challenge to greater strength in the summons,

> "Add this to the rest
> Take it and try its worth: here dies another day."

Near by my blue-gray Browning, Keats lives in a red house, rose-red, blood-red, "with a veined humanity." When one looks at Keats' windows, sunset flushed, one sees them shadowed by young damsels dancing, hears the shepherds piping through the vales of Thessaly and, sweeter than all, hears that full-throated nightingale's song. Yet it is in another and a stronger mood that one sometimes follows the poet

> "beyond the bourne of care,
> Beyond the sweet and bitter world—beyond unaware!"

or watches with him, keen-eyed, whil Cortez and his men look

> "at each other with a mild surmise—
> Silent, upon a peak in Darien."

Wordsworth's sober brown dwellin within whose bounds one finds none b sane pulses, adjoins a Milton habitati

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of so quiet and conventional a hue that one would hardly imagine it to be the home of Chaos and Old Night, or that so awful a creature as Satan could harbor there. It is always Satan, panoplied in might, Satan, Milton's greatest conception, who looks out at me from the deep-set windows of this dwelling. Poor tame Adam and Eve and all the rest—even the angelic throng—grow pale beside him.

"Darkened so, yet shone
Above them all the archangel; but his face
Deep scars of thunder had entrenched, and care
Sat on his faded cheek, but under brows
Of dauntless courage."

Often and often have I seen him, that "lost archangel," glooming out of the dusk "with eyes that sparkling blazed," a being many a rood too large for the decorous green-covered habitation that marks his prison house, and many a time have I wondered over the infinite variations of genius that could generate his great creator, John Milton, a mingled creature of thunder and milk.

Why it is that Tennyson, escaping from his rooftree of stamped leather, so frequently responds to my summons with a lilting call from The Valley of Canteretz I do not know; but often the setting sun has shone for me "all along the valley" across the face of that

"Stream that flashest white
Deepening its voice with the deepening of the night,"

a true sunset valley of love and memory.

Between the classic domain of the Iliad and that circle of the Inferno where Francesca and Paolo flutter forever, "so light before the wind," is perched most incongruously the fawn-colored modern cottage where William Howells lives in verse. Here, when I call to him, I see the strong motion of wings that never really reach the upper air. His door opens to the sunlit radiance, all the shapes of earth go by, he calls each one by name, he knows us all with a brutally intimate knowledge, but he has few illusions in regard to us.

"Have you no word of cheer?" I call, "nothing but that reiterated 'perhaps—perhaps—perhaps'?" and—for once—he answers,

"Still somehow the round
Is spiral, and the race's feet have found
The path rise under them which they have trod.
Your facts are facts, yet somewhere there is God."

I am glad to turn away from him to the company of Ruskin, Ruskin at Geneva pointing me to the place where "above field and wood, leaps up the Salère cliff two thousand feet into the air." How many times I have dreamed I saw its "awful angle" and the Rhone flowing "like one lambent jewel" with the "dear old decrepit town as safe in the sweep of it as if it were set in a brooch of sapphire."

The sunset is growing lurid now, lurid enough to light up this Carlyle guidepost to The French Revolution and the shapes that peer behind it. I remember, Mr. Carlyle, when you first introduced me to that seething vortex of blood and gloom and capital letters—how my heart beat and my pulses leaped while you told the story! To-night in that dark corner of yours I see your rock-hewn, pock-marked Mirabeau, Mirabeau of the lion's mane, dying with a rose in his hand.

Here, under a picture of Stratford, William Shakespeare has a corner to himself. When I turn towards his abiding place he carries me back to the old childhood library where the Shakespeare I love best still lives, the Shakespeare edited by Johnson and Steevens and illustrated with pictures that were once as familiar to me as my own face in the glass.

My acquaintance with that Shakespeare began when, as a child suffering from measles, I lay under the shadow of the bookcases in a bed of majestic size, and, calling a roster of all the books I knew, summoned the eight volumes of the great dramatist to join the assembly. "Mr. and Mrs. Shakespeare and six children" always headed the muster roll, followed closely by a throng of old English poets, and interspersed with such worthies as Watts on the Mind, Locke on the Understanding, Zimmerman on Solitude, etc.

There was, fortunately for me, a sparse supply of fiction in that library, and to-night, as I linger in my Shakespeare corner, there comes to me a resurrection of youth, a coming back to life of the slender, brown-haired child who first learned to find an absorbing interest in Mr. Shakespeare and his progeny. One evening as I lay in my ponderous bed, rejoicing in its vast regions of outlying space, there drifted to my ear from that outer world where privileged adults "sat up" until

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indefinite hours, a voice, a sonorous, delightful voice, reading

"This happy breed of men, this little world
This precious stone set in the silver sea."

Straightway a vision shone on my darkness, a silver glow of waves, a green and fortunate isle—a vision which always comes back to mind when the memory of Richard II is evoked. Next I found for myself that Temple garden where Somerset and Plantagenet plucked the red rose and the white. The garden, as I then painted its verdure in my thought, is as real as if I had seen it with my bodily sight.

In those days Shakespeare's Kings, whom I somehow associated in my own mind with the scriptural books of Kings, had great charm for me. In my dim, childish way I made for myself a world in which they lived. I think I even had a vague comprehension of that steel-strung Henry Bolingbroke, whose one weakness was his yearning over his wild son; of the wild son who felt himself great enough to trifle with greatness; of hot-spur Harry Percy; aye, even some intuition of Falstaff himself, Falstaff as he was, as he might have been; the roistering, swashbuckling knight, who yet died babbling of green fields.

Strangely enough the first romantic play of Shakespeare's which I ever read was "Antony and Cleopatra." It was on a summer day, and, as I stretched myself on the old sofa with the book in my hand, I saw through the open window first a grass-green terrace, then a cloud of cherry blossoms, above all a sky drenched in sunlit blue. I was a mere child; I knew nothing of love; I did not know why the story took hold on the deeps of my nature, or why when I came to the famous passage which begins,

"I am dying, Egypt, dying,"

I found myself sobbing convulsively.

It was not an expurgated edition which I read—absolute innocence does its own expurgating—but that which reached and touched me was the real, the human, the true, the emotions that are eternal.

I have seen many wonderfully equipped modern libraries, stocked with literature for children, and have not envied them. Better I love to look back on those highways and byways of the old bookcases, to sit with Gray on the "gentle acclivity" from whence he saw the spires of Eton, to wander with William Collins to "fair Fidele's grassy tomb," to listen to that strain of sententious wisdom mingled with naïve superstition which made Pliny the Consul a loved companion.

One has a right to love this world of the bookcases, because the real world—what we call the real world—is richer and not poorer because of it. When one walks there in the twilight one sets the background of the ages against the simple loves of every day, and finds them only more beautiful and more enduring by the light of other lives and loves; until as the sunset dusk fades into the night the bookcase world and the living world blend into the great circle of immortality.

Marital Questions in Recent Fiction

By Wallace Rice

"AN æsthetic type of society is weakest at the seventh commandment," says Miss Aline Gorren in her interesting book, "Anglo-Saxons and Others;" "an economic type of society frailest at the eighth." Recently published works of fiction in English may be taken to prove the former half of this compound postulate, both positively and negatively; so far as they touch upon the latter half, the proof is direct.

In "Mr. Claghorn's Daughter," Mr. Hilary Trent takes for his heroine the only child of an American of means, long resident in Paris, an agnostic who has brought the girl up equally remote

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Mr. Claghorn's Daughter. By Hilary Trent. 12mo. pp. 277. New York: J. S. Ogilvie Publishing Co. $1.00.

Felix. By Robert Hichens. 12mo, pp. 432. New York: Frederick A. Stokes Co. $1.50.

The Mettle of the Pasture. By James Lane Allen. 12mo, pp. 448. New York: The Macmillan Co. $1.50.

The Kempton-Wace Letters. Anonymous. 12mo, pp. 256. New York; The Macmillan Co. $1.50.

The Law of Life. By Anna McClure Scholl. 12mo. pp. 572. New York: D. Appleton & Co. $1.50.

The Diary of a Year: Passages in the Life of a Woman of the World. Edited by Mrs. Charles Brookfield. 12mo, pp. 290. Boston: L. C. Page & Co. $1.25.

The Dominant Strain. By Anna Chapin Ray. 12mo. pp. 350. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. $1.50.

The Unwelcome Mrs. Hatch. By Mrs. Burton Harrison. 12mo, pp. 191. New York; D. Appleton & Co. $1.25.

The One Woman: A Story of Modern Utopia. By Thomas Dixon, Jr. 12mo, pp. 350. New York: Doubleday, Page & Co. $1.50.

The Mannerings. By Alice Brown. 12mo. pp. 382. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.

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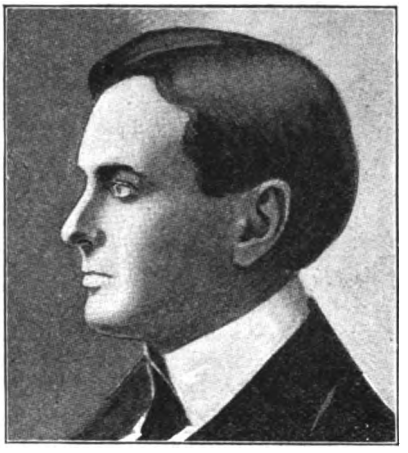
from Puritanism and Catholicism. She obtains her first knowledge of the United States after her father's death, when she comes to live with kinsfolk in a small town in the southern states dominated socially by a Presbyterian theological seminary. With her comes a French maid, who is made to serve as the feminine villain of the tale after the manner almost conventional in English fiction and drama. The heroine is in reality in love with a cousin, a man of the world, but circumstances betray her into marriage with another cousin, a professor in the seminary. Brought in contact with the French maid after his marriage, the professor succumbs to her charms at a time when his wife is in revolt against the doctrine of predestination as applicable to the fate of her little son, newly dead, and he takes the downward course headlong, never to emerge. His wife, though she has long realized that she is in love with her other cousin, refuses a divorce, and it is not until her husband's miserable death in her arms that she consents to a marriage with her true love.

The art of Mr. Robert Hichens is seen at its best in "Felix," a novel which may be taken as supplementing the one just under consideration. The hero is English-born, with a strong admixture of Irish and some Spanish blood. He goes to France to complete his schooling, and the site of the school near Tours interests him in "La Comédie Humaine" of Balzac to such an extent that he absorbs it to the minutest detail and takes it as the key to all human life and conduct. Upon his return to England he is thrown in contact with a woman of the greater world in London, the wife of a publisher, and a confirmed user of morphine. He falls in love with her in an innocently boyish manner, and seeks her redemption. Balzac affords no answer to the problems presented under these circumstances. The husband of the afflicted woman perceives the innocence of the boy's passion, and labors against the inroads of the drug with unswerving fidelity and patience. Though the book is rather a study of morphine and its victims than of love, it contrasts with some abruptness the woman of the world who holds herself free from the ordinary moral restraint and the boy from a little country place



ROBERT HICHENS
Author of "Felix"

with a sound morality glazed over by the vicarious experience gained from his knowledge of Balzac; it is rather the country-bred boy of un-Saxon blood than the city woman with it that represents the English moral ideal.

For how much worldly experience counts has been shown, almost inadvertently, by Mr. James Lane Allen in "The Mettle of the Pasture." The scene is cast in a small Kentucky town. A young man asks the hand of the girl he loves, and the girl is ready to return a favorable answer, the answer that both their families have set their hearts on for years. Having accepted him, the youth is constrained to tell of an episode in his past, whereupon she turns from him instantly, refuses to consider him further as a husband, and by persevering in this attitude through a series of years, finds him at last stricken with incurable disease. After the reader has wondered for much more than half the book what dreadful crime the young man can have committed, it turns out that while in college he had become the father of a child, that he offered marriage to its mother and was refused, that an offer to settle money upon her was also rejected, that the child was put out to adoption in a worthy household, and the girl herself happily married to a man ignorant of her past. This, with the sincere penitence shown, hardly constitutes the unpardonable sin; but it is not until the heroine has traveled long in Europe and presumably acquired a rationalizing knowledge of the world

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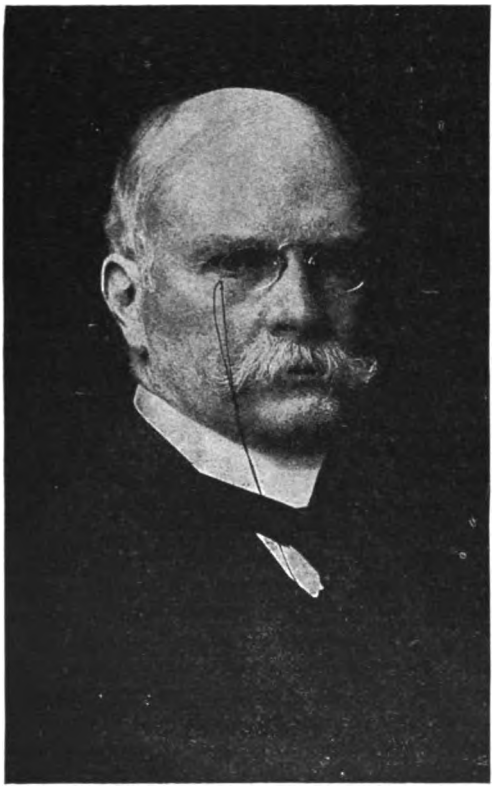
that she allows herself to wed the man she loves, only to have him die soon after. The moral is considerably confused by the conclusion, yet the difference between the provincial and cosmopolitan view of morality seems well distinguished, however obscurely worded in the narrative.

This is also brought out as a minor theme in "The Kempton-Wace Letters," written by an anonymous hand. The major theme is the conflict between sentiment and rationalism in affairs of the heart, and the book is made up of the letters of a poet and man of letters in London and of a student and teacher of science in a California university. The poet has married the scientist's sister, and the scientist is betrothed to a fellow-student in science to whom he expounds his ideas of marriage as a mere means to race-preservation and of a courtship void of mere sentiment. The end is, of course, foregone, and the fine ideas of the poet meet triumphant vindication. But the attitude of the two controversialists will also be felt as that of a man in the great world and of a man cloistered against the actualities of life, exemplifying the world-old conflict of truth and fact.



JAMES LANE ALLEN
Author of "The Mettle of the Pasture"

The university enters again into Miss Anna McClure Scholl's "The Law of Life," in which Cornell is rather palpably the scene of a psychical tragedy. The death of an uncle, a historian resident in a small American village, brings the niece to Ithaca as the ward of the professor of mathematics. The girl, wholly without experience, enters the freshman class, and her sudden plunge into this unknown sea of humanity chills and repels her. Her guardian takes her to help him on a mathematical work he is about to publish, and the assistant professor of mathematics labors with them. This last has been a journalist and war correspondent, a man of the world. But the sheltered, scholarly life of the older professor appeals to the girl as the one she had always known, and this feeling of a sure refuge, somewhat mingled with pity, induces her to become the professor's wife. Too late the mistake is made evident, and the assistant professor and the wife of the head of his department find themselves in the throes of a mighty passion. It is by renunciation that life advances, and there was no other outcome possible between two such idealists as the protagonists here. This seems to have given the book its title. But it is to be noted again that it is the country-bred woman and not the city-bred man who makes this ideal ending possible.

The characters of "The Diary of a Year: Passages in the Life of a Woman of the World," edited by Mrs. Charles Brookfield, are very exalted personages indeed, all of them being noblewomen, princes, and the like, constituting the highest and most courtly society of Europe, with the accent upon England. The keeper of the diary is wedded conventionally to a man who has awakened neither her regard nor her affection. Though no actual offense against the law is committed in the course of the narrative, its general effect is that marital fidelity as a matter of moral principle is practically unknown in the exalted circles in which the characters move.

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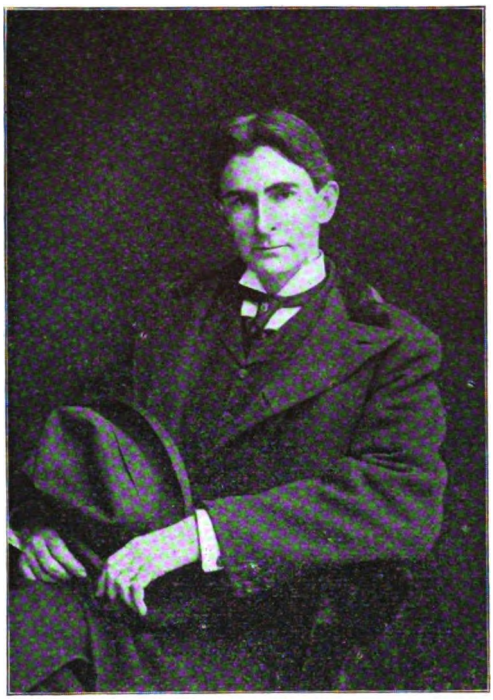
Of a higher type is Miss Anna Chapin Ray's "The Dominant Strain," though the surroundings are much the same. A New York girl of wealth and position accepts a man who has an unfortunate heredity so far as the abuse of alcohol is concerned, believing herself able to restrain his tendency. He turns out a most disagreeable variety of drunkard and slips from sporadic into habitual intoxication almost without warning. The hero of the book, however, is the son of a Russian singer by a descendant of New England "Brahmins," the intimate friend of the drunkard and the unacknowledged lover of his wife. After the husband has passed away in a drunken frenzy, the two come together, but the widow withholds herself until the miserable and sickly child that had been born to her follows its father into the next world. Then they are united. The hero, it should be observed, is himself an opera singer of the first distinction, and again it is the woman of slighter experience in the world who holds aloof from a union obnoxious to criticism.

What represents New York society better than any of the foregoing stories in all probability is "The Unwelcome Mrs. Hatch" of Constance Cary (Mrs. Burton) Harrison, already well known in dramatic form under the same title through Mrs. Minnie Maddern Fiske's impersonation of the heroine. This is a woman of middle age whose family had been among the best known in the metropolis for more than one generation. Married to a brute of a man, she flees from him with one of his friends, rather in desperation than through any sinful intention. The announcement of the marriage of her daughter brings her from San Francisco, where she had been earning a living in an æsthetically commercial way, to see her child before she takes that most important step. The treatment of such a personality brings up several interesting questions. The situations were acceptable in the play, but in the novel it is evident that Mrs. Burton, however much her sympathies may run with her protagonist, feels herself to be transgressing somewhat the accepted literary conventionalities. To this end she brings heavy suffering upon her, and leaves the outcome of it all. whether she is to be



THOMAS DIXON, JR.
Author of "The One Woman."

happy in the future, in real doubt. The book marks a transitional stage in social ethics, the beginning of the toleration of the divorcée.

A marked lack of sympathy with the poorer classes and a manifest hatred of socialism mark "The One Woman" of Rev. Thomas Dixon, Jr., who goes back to patient Griselda for his type. A clergyman from a smaller community secures a pastoral charge in New York, and accepts the teachings of socialism. He is happily married and has children, but a woman of great beauty and wealth comes to assist him in his work, and he discards his wife. He then marries the other woman, the ceremony consisting in the declaration of marriage by another clergyman in the presence of several witnesses and the contracting parties. By the citation of several writers on socialism, none of them American, Mr. Dixon demonstrates that socialism and free love are practically bound up in one another. The new wife takes up with another man, a banker of the conventional manner of thinking, and the husband kills him in cold blood. Thereupon the wife of his

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ALICE BROWN
Author of "The Mannerings," etc.
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J. A. Lorenz, Photographer

youth comes to his rescue and eventually secures his pardon after he had been duly condemned to death. Though the actual question of the marital relations is more vital in the argument of this book than in any of its predecessors, the issue is so clogged by the author's prejudices that it is more apparent than real. Few novels are more lacking in spiritual quality.

Miss Alice Brown's story of "The Mannerings" is a work of real distinction, and has a promise of literary permanency not exceeded by any work of fiction in recent years. It has breadth, style, interest, intellect and spirituality—all the attributes of a work of literary art highly conceived and thoroughly worked out. Four love stories find room in its spacious pages, and these are so full of human knowledge that a synopsis of them is hardly possible within narrow limits. Only one of the four is concerned with persons already married, however, and this is in point. There is marked unity of place in the book, all the action developing in a small New England village among people of refinement and social graces. The protagonist of the argument is a woman of large ambition, bound to a man of scholarly pretenses and small moral worth. She finds life with him trying at its best, but when he takes a trashy story she had written in her immaturity, places it on the market as an anonymous work, and gives it vogue by advertising of the most undignified character, all without her consent and with complete inability to comprehend her disgust, it becomes impossible. In no sense of the word a man of business, his failure to realize profits is met by the misappropriation of trust funds in his keeping, a final blow to all her love and pride. At the last he leaves her, and she finds scope for her belated ambitions in hard intellectual work in the neighboring city. Here is no question of some third person, either man or woman, to complicate a question of spiritual incompatibility, but a situation from the real world worked out to an answer which is not wholly conclusive, leaving as usual the burden on the woman.

It seems to be the fairly unanimous testimony of the ten authors whose works have been criticised here that the world commonly called polite, using the word in its etymological as well as its secondary senses, looks upon marital divagations without condemnation either vehement or mild, reserving that for the moral vagaries of those less fortunately circumstanced in the worldly sense. Not one of them questions the right of those unhappily married to separate, though it is noteworthy that the question is fairly begged by withholding the question of children from the discussion. An exception more apparent than real exists in Mr. Dixon's case; for, however much the wife may be praised for returning to her husband when she finds him helpless and in trouble, the strictest reader would hardly visit blame upon her had she seen fit to remain away. So far as these novels reflect contemporary life with accuracy, the question of divorce *a mensâ et thoro* seems to be settled.

As observed heretofore, the more serious question of divorce *a vinculo* with the right of remarriage is in a state of transition, with a strong tendency to look upon instances of it with more and more complacency as one advances through the

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ranks of respectability to the classes which lay stress upon other qualities. Pursuits confessedly æsthetic seem to be regarded as conferring a higher degree of "emancipation" upon their followers than any others whereby a livelihood is obtained, standing here upon a plane of practical equality with the leisure classes. With the increase of these classes in America, marital bonds seem to be relaxing, following the "wealth, vice, corruption" sequence of Byron, and proving anew his apothegm that "history hath but one page."

NOTICES AND REVIEWS

A Parish of Two. Douglas Dayton Letters, by Henry Goelet McVickar. Percy Dashiel Letters, by Percy Collins. Boston: Lothrop Publishing Company. Pp. 417. $1.50.

Novels cast in the form of correspondence labor under heavy disadvantages. Men do not generally write often enough or freely enough to their friends to make a connected story, and a reader is almost certain to feel the improbability or at least the impropriety of certain disclosures. In the present volume these difficulties of method are very obvious. Some of the earlier letters are exceedingly clever writing, some of the later ones are diffuse and unnatural. Of all the characters in the book only one comes near to flesh and blood—the husband of the woman with whom the two correspondents are in love. The letters of the crippled clergyman are especially marked by the spirit of a refined and manly friendship, and serve to take the edge off those of his rather too outspoken friend. As a sermon the book has no uncertain message.

The Castle of Twilight. By Margaret Horton Potter. With six illustrations by Ch. Weber. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. Pp. 429. $1.50.

In her latest book, Miss Potter has evidently profited by the criticisms passed upon "Uncanonized." Her pages are no longer overloaded with matters of antiquarian interest and historical allusions. Conscious, as her foreword shows, of the prejudice against historical novels, she has kept herself true to the ideals of fiction rather than to those of a narrative work of history. Another thing in the book is decidedly interesting. It is wholly a woman's book. Men do not figure in it except very subordinately. Indeed, it will appear to many readers as if the chief method of the book is to show that the Castle of Twilight is really a Paradise, with Adam missing. The stately mother, Eleanore, without her husband; the beautiful Laure, without the lover with whom she had eloped; Lenore without Gerault, the son of the house; Alixe, the neglected of men, and the infant daughter of Lenore and Gerault; live on, half in content and half in melancholy, in the great castle by the sea.

There is atmosphere in this book such as Miss Potter has not given us before. It is suggested by music, so the dedication says, evidently by the nocturne of Grieg, a few bars of which face the table of contents. The book itself bears testimony to the fact. It is rare indeed that one reads a story which produces upon the reader an impression so much like that produced by music. Altogether, it is a charming piece of work and almost if not quite the only instance of a woman novelist of late days dealing exclusively with the questions of a woman's fears and loves.

Trent's Trust. By Bret Harte. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. Pp. 264. $1.25.

The stories in this volume have that literary excellence and interest which one naturally associates with their author's work. Anything that Bret Harte wrote during the latter part of his life possibly lacked the charm which came from the novelty and greater spontaneity of his earlier work, but it was always literature.

The Log of a Cowboy. By Andy Adams. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. Pp. 387. $1.50.

This volume combines the interest of a story with that of an autobiography. It narrates the adventures of a band of cowboys who drove a herd of several thousand cattle from Texas to the Black Hills. There is in it material enough for a half-dozen novels of the plains. The difference between it and a book like Owen Wister's "Virginian" is that between a photograph and an artist's sketch or between the autobiography of a sea captain and a tale of W. Clark Russell. Occasionally its conversations are a trifle "literary," but that may be due to the reviser who put the log into shape. Perhaps the most striking thing in the volume is the utter absence of any attempt to exploit the dramatic situations in which the story abounds. It is in fact its sincerity and devotion to life as it actually must have been lived on the trail that gives the book its undoubted power and charm. It would be difficult to find a less journalistic and more effective account of supreme incidents in men's lives than the story of the drowning of the foreman and the duel in one of the border towns. Taken as a whole, the book is one to be read with enjoyment, and if a man be interested in actual human experience, with instruction.

The Red Triangle. By Arthur Morrison. Boston: L. C. Page & Co. Pp. 304. $1.50.

Martin Hewitt, as all readers of detective stories know, is a somewhat corpulent Sherlock Holmes, who does not use cocaine. He therefore lacks in the sort of mystery that appeals to the amateur reader of amateur adventures. For this, if for no other, reason, the reader's interest in the story of his somewhat sluggish omniscience is less than in the doings of his victims. In the stories which cluster about the Red Triangle, he is as shadowy as a gentleman with

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a Pickwickian profile can well be. Yet, "The Red Triangle," as a book, though a trifle gruesome, is worthy to be classed with the later products of Mr. Conan Doyle's inductive fancy.

A Laboratory Outline of Physiological Chemistry. By Ralph Waldo Webster and Waldemar Koch. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press. Pp. 108, interleaved. $1.50 net.

This manual is intended for laboratory use by students of physiological chemistry, particularly medical students. It embodies experiments on the chemistry of the cell, the animal tissues, the foods and the excretions. Particularly interesting at the present time in view of current discussions is the chapter on milk with the various tests for adulteration.

Principals and Ideals for the Sunday School: An Essay in Religious Pedagogy. By E. D. Burton and Shailer Mathews, Professors in the University of Chicago. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press.

It is a matter of great moment that so many who are engaged in the highest form of general education are putting their strength with the Sunday-school. The work before us is at once one of the best proofs and one of the finest fruits of this interest. It is divided into two parts, dealing respectively with "The Teacher" and "The School." In the first part something infinitely better than mere advice is given. It is principles and ideals which are clearly and powerfully set forth in a manner at once convincing and impressive. The second part contains much that will help to make history; but nowhere is it stronger than in Chapter IV., on "The Organization of the Graded School." That chapter alone ought to set new ideals before all thoughtful and earnest ministers and superintendents, and to awaken the burning desire to put the Sunday-school on a basis worthy of the great work of religious education.

The Faith of Robert Louis Stevenson. By John Kelman. Chicago: Fleming H. Revell Company. $1.50 net.

John Kelman is evidently a versatile young preacher. He has already won an enviable reputation as a preacher to the students of Edinburgh; he has written a sympathetic and highly picturesque study of the scenery of Palestine; and now he produces a study of Stevenson's character and temperament so discerning, so subtle, so charming, that it will undoubtedly take rank beside the life and letters as an indispensable aid to the student of the genius of R. L. S.

Let it be said first that Mr. Kelman shows his ingenuity by expanding into a volume a theme which more properly belongs to the scope of a single essay, without once growing tedious or repetitious or diffuse. It must be confessed that he accomplishes this feat by stretching his title to its utmost limit. If by the "faith" of Stevenson we are to understand his entire philosophy of life and intellectual as well as spiritual outlook, then the book falls within the title. A comparatively small portion of the discussion is devoted to Stevenson's attitude toward evangelical religion, though in this brief space the author shows convincingly that the outspoken prayerfulness and piety of the Samoan period had its roots far back in the careless, bohemian youth. But Mr. Kelman very properly holds that we can never understand a man's faith until we know the whole man, with all his instincts and impulses; therefore he has written what is practically a history of Stevenson's inner life as portrayed in his writings and letters, studied from the point of view of a Christian thinker.

The best thing about the book is its freedom from fulsome hero worship, its frank recognition of Stevenson's obvious vanity and striving after effect. Henley would have liked Mr. Kelman's honesty in this respect. There are some of us who fall easily under the spell of Stevenson's matchless style and pathos until some rude hand like Henley's shows us a long-haired poseur faithfully studying his mirror, and then we are in danger of losing much of beauty and truth and true manhood when we see our hero off his pedestal. The highest art of the critic is to take away the pedestal, while leaving unmarred all that is truly admirable and manly and enduring. This Mr. Kelman has done; and in the doing of it he has added a distinct contribution to the defense of that modern infusion of Christian ideals into the Hellenic type of culture which represents much that is best in recent religious thought. He has shown how much higher was Stevenson's catholicity of interests than that of Whitman or Kipling or other recent prophets of the *nil humani alienum* school, in that Stevenson did not satisfy himself with declaring his allegiance to mankind and creation in general with the particularity of a trade catalogue, but sought through a sympathetic imagination which was essentially moral in its tendencies to link man with man and race with race in the bonds of common understanding and brotherhood and unselfish service.

The History and Use of Hymns and Hymn-Tunes. By David R. Breed. Chicago: Fleming H. Revell Company. Pp. 364. $1.50 net.

This is an excellent text-book on church music for ministers and students. It is much more suitable for class use than the larger and older works by Duffield and others. Together with a brief but well-proportioned historical sketch of ancient mediæval and modern hymns, it has chapters on the choice of hymns and tunes. The author endeavors to lay down simple rules which will enable persons deficient in natural musical taste to tell a good tune from a poor one. If only the preachers and evangelists would read this book and lay its teachings to heart, we should be spared much atrocious noise that goes under the name of sacred music. The proofreader has made bad work of some of the Latin hymns, but otherwise the volume is irreproachable.

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THE CALENDAR OF THE MONTH

FROM AUGUST 15 TO SEPTEMBER 15, 1903

UNITED STATES.

August 17.—Joseph Pulitzer, of the New York *World*, has given $1,000,000 to establish a school of journalism in connection with Columbia University. If the school is in successful operation at the end of three years, he will give as much more....Judge Rogers, in the United States Circuit Court, St. Louis, makes a ruling that the Western Union Telegraph Company has a legal right to discharge employees for belonging to unions, or to discharge them for no reason at all, if no contract exists; and that the company was within the law when it placed the names of discharged men on the blacklist and furnished the list to others for their information.

August 20.—President Roosevelt defines his attitude toward the labor question in two letters to Secretary Cortelyou: "There is no objection to the employees of the Government Printing Office constituting themselves into a union if they so desire, but no rules or resolutions of that union can be permitted to override the laws of the United States, which it is my sworn duty to enforce." Referring to the finding of the Anthracite Coal Strike Commission that there shall be no discrimination against or interference with any person on account of membership or nonmembership in any labor organization by any members of such organization, the president writes: "It is, of course, mere elementary decency to require that all the government departments shall be handled in accordance with the principle thus clearly and fearlessly enunciated."

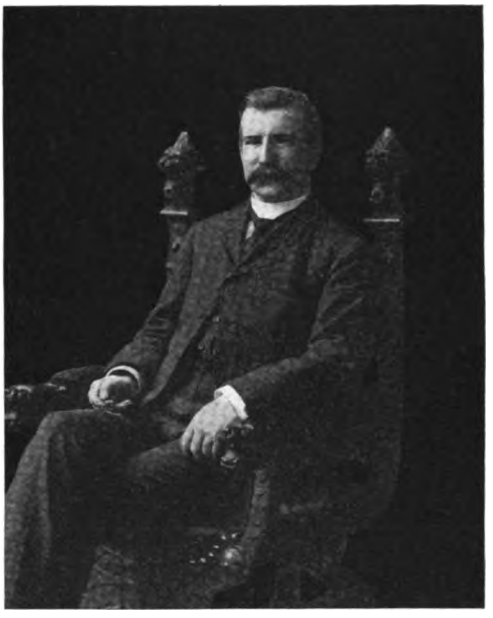
August 21.—General John C. Black, of Illinois, is elected commander-in-chief of the Grand Army of the Republic, in encampment at San Francisco.

August 22.—Charles Carroll Bonney, president of the Parliament of Religions at the World's Fair in 1893, dies in Chicago.

August 25.—Postmaster-General Payne issues an order which practically makes all railroad trains in the United States mail trains. This order relates exclusively to the transportation of newspapers....It is announced that the resignation of Secretary of War Elihu Root will go into effect about January 1, and Judge William H. Taft, the present governor of the Philippines, will succeed him as secretary of war. General Luke E. Wright, the present vice-governor of the Philippines, will be made governor of the islands. Mr. Root is to go to England to serve on the Alaska Boundary Tribunal.

August 26.—By order of Public Printer Palmer, every employee, union and non-union, of the Government Printing Office is to appear before a notary public and take an oath of allegiance to the United States government. The oaths administered are those prescribed for government clerks by the civil service laws....Samuel J. Parks, walking delegate of the Housesmiths' and Bridgemen's Union, New York City, who was convicted August 21 of extortion, is sentenced to Sing Sing Prison for a term of not less than two years and six months nor more than three years and six months.

August 27.—Before the American Bar Association, the Committee on Commercial Law reads a report proposing remedies against the evils arising from trusts.



LUKE E. WRIGHT

Who will succeed Governor Taft when Mr. Taft becomes Secretary of War

August 28.—Frederick Law Olmsted, landscape architect of the Chicago World's Fair, Central Park, New York City, and many other well-known parks, dies at Waverly, Mass., at the age of eighty-one years.

August 29.—The evidence in the case of the United States against Marion Priestwood, a wealthy planter and turpentine operator, heard at Troy, Ala., before Federal Commissioner Tutwiler, shows that poor whites as well as negroes are being held in slavery in Alabama....Caleb Powers, former secretary of state of Kentucky, is sentenced at Georgetown, Ky., to be hanged for complicity in the murder of Governor Goebel in 1900. This is his third conviction..... The report of S. M. Brosius, of the Indian Rights Association, charges the Dawes Commission and other government officials appointed to protect the Indians from fraud, with cheating the Indians of Indian Territory out of their land by inducing the red men to accept, in their ignorance of land values, ridiculously small sums for their estates. The federal government has ordered an investigation.

September 1.—The Gosnold Tower is dedicated with great ceremony at Gosnold, Mass., a

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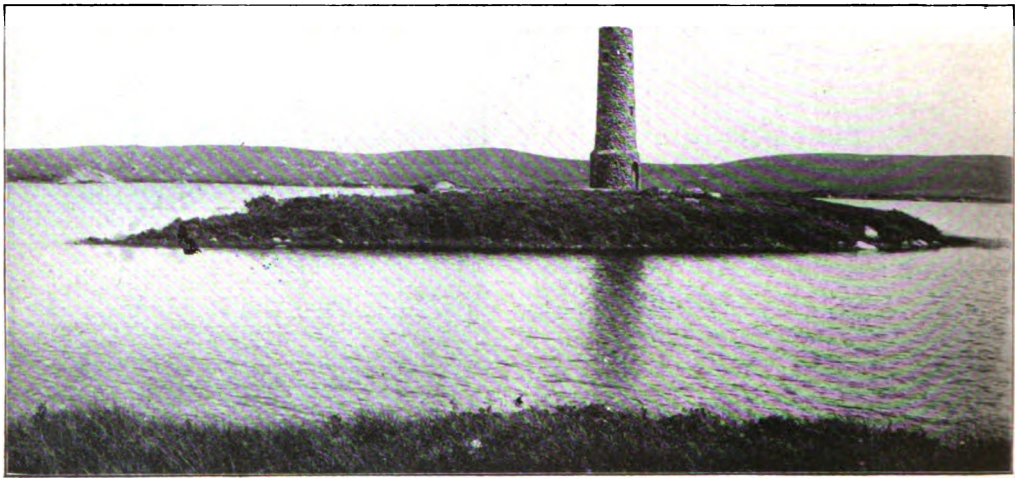
little Venicelike town occupying the thirteen Elizabeth Islands near Cape Cod. The tower has been erected to commemorate the achievements of the English explorer, Bartholomew Gosnold, who discovered the islands in 1602, and erected a fort on whose site the Gosnold memorial tower now stands. The cornerstone was taken from the original fort's foundation. This was the first English settlement on the New England coast, but it existed only for a month, when it was abandoned. The tower is sixty feet high, and was erected by the citizens of eastern Massachusetts.



THE GOSNOLD MEMORIAL, ELIZABETH ISLANDS, MASS.

September 5.—Commander Robert E. Peary, of the United States Navy, secures three years' leave of absence for the purpose of making a fourth attempt to reach the north pole.

September 6.—The Danville, Ill., jury returns a verdict of guilty of engaging in the attack on the county jail, with intent to kill, July 25, against twelve persons.

September 8.—Judge M. W. Thompson, of the circuit court, refuses a new trial to the twelve rioters convicted September 6. He sentences the eleven adults to indeterminate terms in the penitentiary, and Thomas Bell, a minor, to the Pontiac reformatory.

September 11.—Samuel J. Parks, walking delegate of the New York Housesmiths' Union, who was convicted of extortion and sentenced to Sing Sing, August 21, who was afterward released on bail under a certificate of reasonable doubt by a judge of a higher court, together with fifteen hundred men whom he controlled absolutely, is expelled from the International Association of Bridge and Iron Workers.

September 15.—The National Irrigation Congress meets at Ogden, Utah.

EUROPE.

August 17.—The Bulgarian government presents to the powers a memorandum setting forth at great length the condition of affairs during the last three months in Macedonia, since the Turkish government promised to inaugurate the promised reforms. The most precise details, dates, places and names of persons are given in the memorandum. The Bulgarian government guarantees the absolute truth of every statement, and challenges the Porte to disprove a single charge.

August 20.—A Russian fleet is in Turkish waters. Russia has issued a demand that severe official censure be passed upon Hilmi Pasha, the inspector-general of Macedonia, for his negligence in permitting excesses by Turkish soldiers.

August 21.—A general strike begins in Ekaterinostav, Russia. Tramway and railroad traffic is stopped, newspapers do not appear, and the factories are surrounded by troops. Thousands of strikers gather in the marketplace and fight with the military. Before order is restored, eleven strikers are killed and twelve wounded.

August 22.—Robert Arthur Talbot Gascoyne Cecil, the third Marquis of Salisbury, former premier of England, dies at Hatfield House, near London, on the fiftieth anniversary of his first election to Parliament....All the members of the Humbert family, including Mme. Therese Humbert, her husband and brothers, are convicted and sentenced to prison. Mme. and M. Humbert are each condemned to five years of solitary confinement and to pay a fine of 100 francs ($20). Emile Daurignac is condemned to two years' imprisonment, and Romain Daurignac to three years.

August 23.—Russia is preparing a law legalizing strikes. Heretofore they have been illegal, and the plan is to provide lawful means by which workmen may attempt to enforce their demands upon their employers....At the sixth Zionist Congress, in session at Basel, Switzerland, the president, Dr. Theodor Herzl, announces, in his annual address, that Great Britain has offered the Jews a vast tract of territory in East Africa for colonization. If the offer is accepted, Great Britain pledges itself to grant an autonomous government, subject only to British suzerainty. ....The Russian Black Sea squadron returns to Sevastopol from Iniada, eastern European Tur-

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key, whither it was ordered to support Russia's demands on the sultan growing out of the assassination of M. Rostkowski, the Russian consul at Monastir. The recall of the fleet follows a notification that the sultan has ordered all demands to be complied with.

August 24.—Simultaneous massacres by Turks and insurgents are reported in eight Macedonian districts, as follows: Adrianople—Turks begin general massacre of Christians Sunday morning; Armensko—Turks burn one hundred and fifty houses out of a total of one hundred and fifty-seven, and massacre every man, woman and child; Burgas—Bulgarians blow up Turkish government buildings with dynamite; two hundred persons reported killed. Florina—Turks reported to have massacred all women and children in twenty-two villages. Karacunvo—Fifty-seven Turks killed by insurgents. Krushevo—Mutilated corpses of ninety women and children found in one building; streets filled with dead; fifteen principal merchants beheaded; entire village burned. Silklihar—Turkish garrison captured by insurgents and killed. Vasiliko—Bulgarians kill fifty Turkish soldiers and one hundred Mussulmans.

August 25.—The British Royal Commission's report on the Boer war strongly condemns the British organization and the lack of preparation in 1900. The disclosures shock the English people, as indicated by the scathing press comments. It is urged that the British war department must be reformed, "lock, stock and barrel."..... Altenberg, or Moresnet, the little neutral district bordering on Prussia, Belgium and Holland, barely covering one and one-half square miles, and having a population of about 2,500 souls, is ceded by Prussia to Belgium for a cash consideration....It is reported that of the $12,500,000 left by Sam Lewis, the famous English moneylender, who died two years ago, over $7,500,000 go to charitable and other public uses, including $2,000,000 for dwellings for the poor in any part of England that the trustees may select, and $500,000 for a Jewish hospital. ....The Bulgarian insurgents capture the town of Neveska, seize the arms and ammunition of the garrison, levy a contribution of $5,000 on the town and then withdraw to the mountains. The Turkish troops, on their arrival, bombarded the town, but, receiving no response, they entered without molesting the inhabitants.

August 26.—The Zionist Congress appoints a committee to investigate the colony for Jews offered by Great Britain.

August 26.—A column of clear lava, fifteen feet in diameter and reaching seven hundred feet into the air, bursts from the side of Mount Vesuvius a thousand feet below the central cone.... The Macedonian Committee, in a fresh appeal to the powers, declares that if intervention is delayed another fortnight, there will be few Macedonian lives to save. This appeal is based on a black-bordered list of seventy villages that were pillaged and destroyed in the vilayet of Monastir. All the inhabitants of these villages, except a few who escaped to the mountains, have been slaughtered—men, women and children.

VESUVIUS FROM THE BAY OF NAPLES

August 28.—In a battle with Turks, fought at Slivovo, northwest of Monastir, Macedonia, the Bulgarians are defeated and one thousand of their number killed. Chaos rules in the entire vilayet of Monastir. The area of the insurrection is spreading rapidly. The uprising is being assisted partly by the scarcity of food, which is driving the neutrals into the ranks of the insurgents.

August 29.—The Czar of Russia makes M. Sergius de Witte president of the Committee of Ministers, and, by the same decree, commands that he continue to supervise the Department of Finance.

September 1.—The Macedonian Revolutionary Committee proclaims the long-anticipated general insurrection in northern Macedonia. The territory covered by the new proclamation comprises the district of the Struma River. It

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ERUPTION OF VESUVIUS, APRIL 26, 1872

extends from the Deposito Dagh, or Rhodope Mountains, westward to the Vardar River and northward to the Bulgarian frontier. General Zontchieff, president of the Revolutionary Committee, and Colonel Jankoff, who both sign the proclamation, are to direct the revolt, the former to command the northern district, and the latter the southern. They assert that they have fifteen thousand men.

September 2.—An Austrian steamer in the Black Sea is blown up and twenty-nine persons perish. It is openly charged that the destruction of the vessel is the work of agents of the Macedonian Revolutionary Committee.....It is reported that the Jewish Labor League of Russia has published a secret circular which the minister of the interior, M. von Plehve, has issued to the governors and prefects, prescribing various measures to stop the propagation of Zionism in Russia.

September 3.—The Alaska Boundary Arbitration Commission holds its first formal session and perfects its organization at the British Foreign Office, London.

September 9.—The sultan orders all newspaper correspondents from the area of disturbances in Macedonia.

September 10.—Sir Norman Lockyer, president of the British Society for the Advancement of Science, declares that the British government must spend more money on education—in building "brain power"—or fall far behind the United States and Germany as a nation..... There have been, during the last three months, eighty convictions of sergeants in the German army for abuse of privates, and about two hundred courtsmartial are pending. The administration of the army is making determined efforts to stop brutalities.

September 11.—The French government orders Admiral Jaureguiberry to sail for the Levant with his squadron to protect the interests of French subjects in Macedonia....Great Britain and Ireland are swept by a gale with a force of seventy miles an hour. Over fifty lives are lost, and some sixty vessels are reported wrecked. On land also, the devastation is general. The damage amounts to thousands of dollars.

September 14.—International Social Democratic Congress opens at Dresden, with five hundred delegates present.

ASIA.

August 23.—United States Vice-Consul William C. Magelssen is shot at in Beirut, Syria. President Roosevelt immediately sends Admiral Cotton with the three warships San Francisco, Brooklyn and Machias to Turkish waters to force the porte to investigate and punish the assault and to protect American citizens and interests in Turkey.

September 9.—M. Lessar, the Russian minister, in his note to the Wai-Wa-Pu, engaging that New Chwang and Moukden should be evacuated by the Russians October 8, stipulates, among other conditions, that China must not pledge territory to other powers, and that Russia shall have equal share in concessions to Great Britain ....Several Christians are killed in a riot at Beirut, Syria.

September 10.—United States Minister Leishman, at Constantinople, formally demands of the porte the dismissal of Reshid Pasha, the vali of Beirut, on the ground that he has proved himself incompetent to protect the lives and property of Americans. The Turkish government dismisses Reshid Pasha and transfers Nazim Pasha from the governorship of Damascus to the acting-governorship of Beirut.

SOUTH AMERICA.

August 17.—The Colombian Congress rejects the Panama canal treaty drawn by Secretary Hay and Dr. Herran.

OCEANIA.

September 10.—United States warships seize three more islands of Borneo. British government protests.

FRANCIS G. NEWLANDS
Senator from Nevada who has been prominent in the irrigation movement

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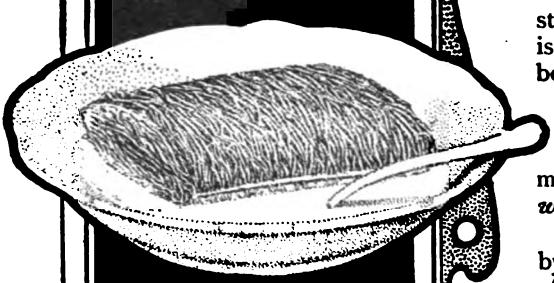

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156

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Mayor of Greater New York; Fusionist Candidate for Re-election

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The World To-Day

VOLUME V. NOVEMBER, 1903. NUMBER 5.

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OCT 30 1903
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EVENTS OF THE MONTH

World Politics

The New English Cabinet

Within the past few weeks, Great Britain has seen a new force in imperial politics—the King, himself. During the reign of Victoria, although the Queen can scarcely be called a figurehead, she can hardly be said to have exercised any distinct influence upon the course of public events. As far as the outer public can see, she never attempted to form a party in Parliament or to follow her own likes and dislikes in the appointment of ministers. Edward VII has clearly adopted another policy. It may be because he has in Balfour such an unaggressive Premier; it may be that the king feels that it is time that the British monarch should exercise a larger influence upon British politics; whatever the cause, the appointments made to fill vacancies caused by the resignation of Mr. Chamberlain, Mr. Ritchie and Lord Hamilton were influenced by the King. The result does not speak very well for royal political insight or for the future of the Unionist party. Alfred Lyttleton, who succeeds Mr. Chamberlain as Secretary for the Colonies, doubtless has political ability, but he seems to be best known as a thirteen-times amateur tennis champion and a gentleman cricketer. The promotion of Austen Chamberlain, as Chancellor of the Exchequer, shows that the break between Mr. Balfour and Mr. Chamberlain is purely official. That the new cabinet can stand any length of time is doubted by all. Its main hope seems to lie in the possible support of the Irish party. A somewhat sensational event in connection with the new cabinet is the resignation of the Duke of Devonshire. This seems to have been entirely unexpected by Mr. Balfour and has given rise to a very sharp correspondence between the two men. The friends of the duke insist that Mr. Balfour kept him in the cabinet at the time of the Chamberlain resignation through a lack of frankness as to his own position. Mr. Balfour, on the contrary, states that the Duke of Devonshire understood perfectly the entire circumstance, and that his refusal to serve in the new cabinet is a breach of good faith.

Chamberlain's Tariff Campaign

While his former Premier has been cabinet-making, Joseph Chamberlain, who seems to be the only man in England who really knows his own mind, has been plunging into a characteristic political agitation. On October 7, in an important address given in Glasgow, he made the first definite announcement as to how his general scheme of preferential tariff should be put into effect. In this speech he proposed (1) a tax of 2 shillings (48 cents) a quarter on foreign wheat, but none on wheat from British possessions. No tax on corn (maize), but

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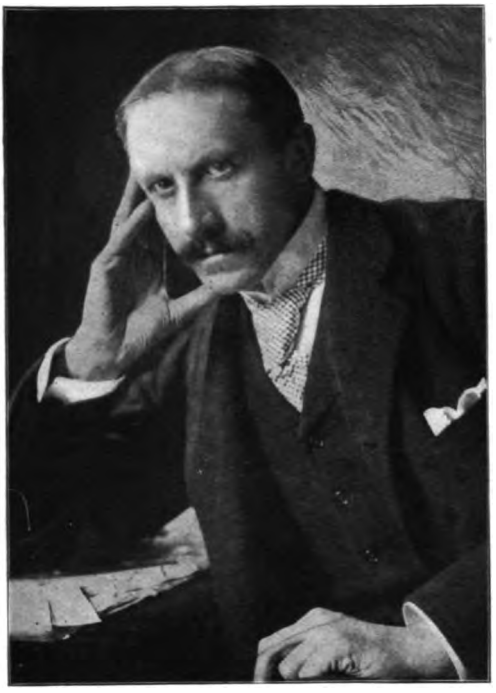

SIR ALFRED MILNER
Who declined the office of British Colonial Secretary

a tax on flour; (2) a tax of five per cent on foreign meat and dairy produce, but no tax on bacon; (3) a substantial preference to the colonies on wines and fruits; (4) a tax of ten per cent on imports of manufactured goods; (5) a reduction of three-quarters of the duty on tea and half the duty on sugar, with corresponding reductions upon cocoa and coffee. On the basis of these proposals, Mr. Chamberlain ingeniously argued that, although the exchequer would lose approximately $14,000,000 by the reduction of duties on tea, sugar, cocoa and coffee, this loss would be more than offset by a moderate duty of ten per cent on manufactured goods selected according to the amount of labor in them. He also argued that the actual cost of living for the poor man would be decreased by his plan, through the fact that foreigners would pay the tax—an argument not altogether unknown in America. The larger benefit of his proposals is, of course, political. By means of the ten per cent duty on goods not manufactured in British colonies, he would expect to bring the colonies into closer connection with the mother country. Although disclaiming that he foresaw the ruin of the British empire, Mr. Chamberlain declared that he did see within it the signs of decay, and stated explicitly that in his estimation Great Britain had reached its highest point. To prevent sinking to a fifth-rate nation, he declared that foreign commerce must be preserved. As to the value of these proposals in the field of economics and the larger politics, we would refer our readers to the remarkable article of Lucien Wolf, perhaps the most competent writer upon the subject in Great Britain, which we print on another page. As it is, all England is discussing the tariff and there is growing up a sentiment in favor of the new program that promises to result in a new political party or at least the reorganization of the old Unionist party. The workingmen seem, on the whole, to disapprove of anything like a protective tariff.

Cape Colony Rebels and the Franchise

At the close of the Boer war an act was passed by the Cape government punishing all who were guilty of rebellion with disfranchisement for five years. Already a demand is being made for a revocation of the act and for the restoration of all convicted rebels to their original status. There is a stout opposition on the part of the government party to this demand. The *Natal Mercury* declares that "the clemency already extended to those who rose in rebellion against the British flag in South Africa has already exceeded anything of its kind recorded in history." This is far from true. The *Mercury* has surely forgotten the magnanimous treatment of the seceding states by the United States government at the end of the war of the rebellion. And it is safe to say that nothing has done more to heal the breach between the North and the South in America than the magnanimous way in which the North treated her fallen foe. The British government has been most generous in affording relief to the Boers who were stripped of their property by the fortunes of war, and we can not help thinking that they would have done still more to help on the work of social reconstruction if, after avowals of allegiance, they had restored to the Boers the civil rights which they had forfeited. There are times when magnanimity pays.

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Rear row, reading from left to right: (1) Lord George Hamilton, Secretary of State for India (resigned); (2) Mr. Ritchie, Chancellor of the Exchequer (resigned); (3) Lord Balfour of Burleigh, Secretary for Scotland (resigned; succeeded by Mr. Graham Murray); (4) Lord Stanley, appointed Postmaster-General; (5) Lord Onslow, President of the Board of Agriculture; (6) Lord Londonderry, President of the Board of Education; (7) Lord Dudley, Lord Lieutenant of Ireland; (8) Earl Percy, mentioned as First Lord of the Admiralty; (9) Mr. Arnold-Forster, appointed Secretary for War.

Front row, reading from left to right: (1) Mr. Long, President of the Local Government Board; (2) Mr. A. Chamberlain, appointed Chancellor of the Exchequer; (3) Mr. Akers-Douglas, Home Secretary; (4) Lord Selborne, mentioned as Secretary for the Colonies before the appointment of Lord Alfred Lyttleton; (5) Lord Halsbury, Lord Chancellor; (6) Mr. Gerald Balfour, President of the Board of Trade; (7) Duke of Devonshire, Lord President of the Council (resigned); (8) Lord Ashbourne, Lord Chancellor of Ireland; (9) Mr. Brodrick, appointed Secretary for India; (10) Mr. George Wyndham, Chief Secretary for Ireland; (11) Mr. Arthur Balfour, First Lord of the Treasury and Prime Minister; (12) Lord Lansdowne, Secretary for Foreign Affairs; (13) Mr. Joseph Chamberlain, Secretary for the Colonies (resigned).

CHANGES IN THE BRITISH CABINET

(From *The Illustrated London News*)

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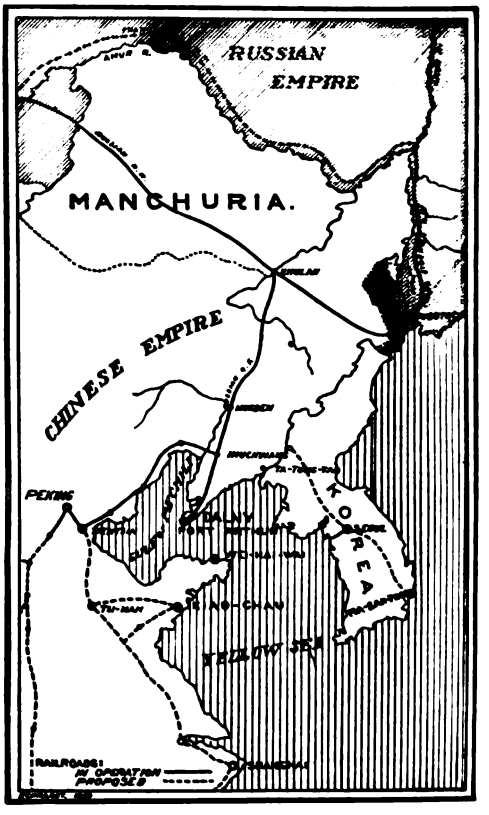
GATE OF A KOREAN FORTRESS

Russia in Korea

It has been a fortunate thing for Russia that attention has been diverted temporarily from Manchuria. The open-door treaty of Secretary Hay was signed on October 8, but Manchuria is just as much under Russian control to-day as ever. The United States has won that for which it contended, namely, open ports and equal privileges for all in the Chinese empire, but Russia has not abandoned that which it has already gained. Indeed, while the rest of the world has been watching the Bulgarian tragedy, Russia, as if assured of her position in Manchuria, has been reaching out toward Korea. A glance at the map will show how inevitable such advance on the part of Russia is. Korea is now an isolated peninsula projecting from what is practically Russian territory into the open sea. Almost at its extreme southern point is an open harbor which might easily be made a base of supplies and operation for the Russian fleet. With Vladivostock, Dalny, Newchuang and Ma-San-Pho, Russia would have such a hold upon northern China that it could never be broken. Japan, however, is just as much interested in Korea as is Russia. In order for her to maintain any sort of influence in China, Korea must be either an independent buffer state or under Japanese influence. Should Russia be permitted to assume further control of the harbors and the forests of the little nation, its fate would undoubtedly be that of Manchuria. In such an outcome the case of Japan in China would be practically hopeless, and the future of Japan itself problematical. Thus with Japan as with Russia and all Europe, China is to prove a source of international disturbance. But war is not yet inevitable. Russia knows the fighting capacity of the Japanese soldier and the Japanese navy, and during the past three months has been endeavoring to reach some sort of diplomatic understanding with the Japanese government. Characteristically, however, it has refused to make any important concessions. Its only approach to offering terms, according to reports, has been the



KOREA AND HER NEIGHBORS

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highwaymanlike proposition that the two nations should divide Korea between them. Japan promptly refused the proposal and, under guise of a war maneuver, brought a large fleet into the harbor of Ma-San-Pho. Russia has also apparently concentrated its entire Pacific ocean fleet in Korean waters and for several days the two forces have lain practically side by side. At the time of going to press, no acts of hostility have broken out and it may be that diplomacy will win the day.

Japan's Interest in China's Future.

Japan's interests in China are by no means entirely philanthropic. Commercial reasons should cause her to seek to secure the independence of the nation and the freedom of commerce now enjoyed. If the exports of the past six years be examined it will be seen that Japan's exports to Asia during that time have increased by forty-one million yen, while the increase of exports to America, the largest consumer of Japan's exports, has been only twenty-nine million yen, and exports to Europe have increased only twenty-five million yen. In 1902 forty per cent of Japan's export trade went to the mainland of Asia. With such a growing market there is little wonder that Japan wishes to preserve it. It should also be remembered that this market is a market for manufactured goods, while the American and European trade is more especially in raw articles, as copper, coal, raw silk and other goods which call for the employment of few to prepare for the market. It is, moreover, true beyond question that no other nation is prepared to introduce and advance the interests of civilization in China as is Japan. Both in education and in religious teaching it is possible for Japan to be China's guide as no nation less closely related to her can be. The quiet and calm existing in Japan should not be taken as an indication of apathy. A Strong Foreign Policy League has been recently organized, which, from its personnel and the widespread endorsement it has received, is but an indication of the depth of feeling existing. The nation is undoubtedly ready to support the government when it has decided to take aggressive steps. This league is out with resolutions which are strong and un-

JOHN G. A. LEISHMAN
United States Minister to Turkey

CHEKIB BEY
Turkish Minister at Washington
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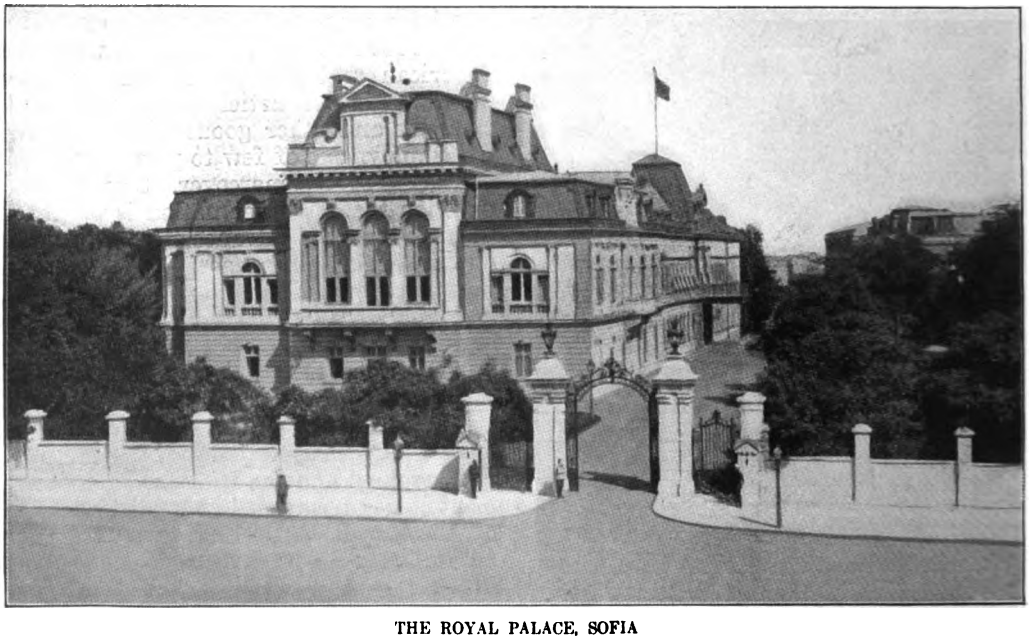
SOFIA, THE CAPITAL OF BULGARIA

mistakable. Some weeks ago considerable stir was aroused by the action of a number of the professors of the Imperial University, who made a strong appeal for immediate and aggressive action to meet the warlike attitude of Russia. Up to the present time, however, there has appeared no evidence of desire for war, but rather every effort to avoid it honorably.

Prospects of Peace in Turkey

The situation in Turkey during the past month has not materially changed, except in one particular. The powers have served notice upon Bulgaria that they will not sanction war with Turkey. At the same time, the Turks have promised certain reforms, and a commission has been appointed to see to it that the Bul-



THE ROYAL PALACE, SOFIA

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garian Christians in Turkey shall be treated with justice. As soon as events took this turn, the newspaper agitation of the situation very largely ceased, public interest being diverted to the English political crisis. At the same time it is to be borne in mind that, if the press bureaus are not quite as prodigal of rumors of war and slaughters as they were a month ago, the situation along the Turkish frontier is most unhappy. Mr. Charles R. Crane, a most capable witness, has told in the Chicago papers of the terrible sufferings of the Christian subjects of Turkey. Yet just at present, although there have been a number of encounters between the Turkish and Bulgarian troops, the future looks much less warlike than it did a month ago. Despite the agitation of the Macedonian Committee in Sofia, the Bulgarian government seems to be ready to follow the advice of the powers, and temporize. Even the redoubtable Sarafoff is reported to advise a cessation of hostilities during the winter. Whether or not they will break out again in the spring depends upon whether the Turks keep their promises of reform.

The Nation

Congress in Extra Session

Notwithstanding the ratification by the United States Senate last spring of the Cuban reciprocity treaty and its later acceptance by the Cuban Senate under a promise from President Roosevelt that an extra session of Congress would be called to approve the changes in the tariff brought about by the treaty, an effort was made recently to induce the President to abandon his purpose of calling an extra session. This is only one of numerous signs of the continued hostility of special interests to the treaty. The President having adhered to his determination to call an extra session early this month, it may be supposed that he will do his utmost to induce Congress to take the necessary action to put into effect the treaty ratified months ago. Besides his plea of justice to Cuba, which he has made so many times in the past, he has a powerful argument in the latest statistics of Cuban trade showing that the markets of the island have been invaded by European products, and that American trade with its people is dwindling sadly. We have run serious risks of losing a good customer by permitting the beet-sugar interests to block action at Washington favorable to trade reciprocity. The last state elections before the national canvass of next year are about to be held and will have passed into history when the extra session meets. The Republican party, therefore, is face to face with the necessity of fixing up its record preparatory to asking for another lease of authority from the voters. President McKinley, in his memorable Buffalo speech the day before he received his death-wound, and President Roosevelt, in various messages and public addresses, have dwelt upon the desirability of trade reciprocity. The British government now has taken up this question as a vital part of the Balfour-Chamberlain program. It is bound to become one of the greatest questions at Washington if that program shall make headway. Already it is apparent that Congress can not afford longer to neglect

HON. JOSEPH G. CANNON
The next Speaker of the House of Representatives

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it. Not only the Cuban treaty, but other reciprocity treaties which have been negotiated with foreign nations should have full consideration before the close of the next regular session of Congress.

Lesson of the Postal Frauds

With the return, on October 5, of a number of indictments voted by the grand jury at Washington against persons implicated in the postoffice frauds, it was announced that the investigation of dishonesty in that department was brought to a close. Twenty-nine persons in all are presented to the courts for trial on criminal charges, a number of them having been prominent in the conduct of postal affairs until the recent disclosures caused their removal from office. While no one political party can be saddled with all the blame for the shocking dishonesty unearthed by Fourth Assistant Postmaster-General Bristow and his associates in the investigation, both Republicans and Democrats being involved, it is perfectly clear that politics is to blame for the general demoralization. Vigorous prosecution of the indicted men, which President Roosevelt has ordered, should suffice to convict the system on which the Postoffice Department is now conducted, as well as the individuals who have profited dishonestly by the system. In fact, the system is convicted already. Though the business transacted by the department during the last fiscal year reached the enormous total of $1,000,000,000, its offices are still used shamelessly to strengthen political lines throughout the United States. As has been admitted recently by Postmaster-General Payne, Republican United States Senators are permitted to employ the postmasterships in their respective states for their own political purposes. The Republican National Committee has a sort of general oversight of the department, with a view to making it serve the needs of the party. Mr. Payne, himself, as vice-chairman of that committee, may be supposed to represent it as well as the President in conducting the enormous postal business of the country. Surely it is time to change all this. The Postoffice Department, with its prodigious income and its mysterious annual deficit, must be put on a business basis, if the disclosures of sordid con-

MRS. E. X. LE SUERE MISS CANNON

Daughters of Speaker Cannon who will keep house for him in Washington

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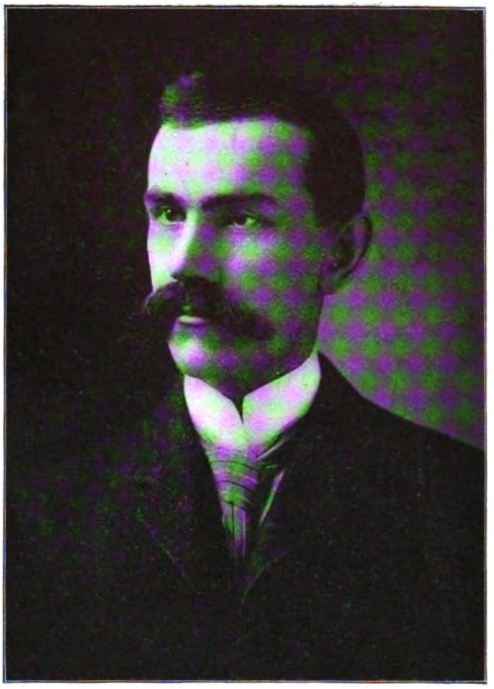
spiracy and pilfering are to have any lasting, beneficial effect.

Senator Smoot

At the opening of Congress, the protests against the seating of Senator Smoot, of Utah, will be presented to the Senate, and probably petitions for his expulsion will be coming in all winter. There is very slight prospect that the demands will be heeded. The case of Brigham H. Roberts is not parallel, for there is no proof that Smoot is or has been a polygamist. The charge brought against him by those who oppose his seating in the Senate is that as an apostle of the Mormon church he has assumed obligations and taken oaths which are incompatible with loyalty to the United States and proper performance of senatorial duties. Much hearsay testimony and not a little evidence taken in Utah courts years ago have been published in pamphlets by Smoot's opponents, but it is generally thought unlikely that the Senate will go into the matter. There are probably many oaths required by secret organizations and obligations demanded by some religious bodies which place some other object of loyalty above the government. To decide upon such a question impartially would require a careful balancing of evidence and avoidance of all religious bias. Smoot's election is certainly a Mormon challenge which shows the growing political power of that sect; but since he was not defeated in the true American way, by political opposition before election, it is now probably impracticable to dislodge him. The most strenuous advocates of such a course would probably hesitate at some of the future consequences which such a precedent might involve.

The Isthmian Canal

Advices from Bogota, late in October, indicated that the Colombian Congress was still laying plans to obtain a better bargain in authorizing the construction of a canal across the isthmus of Panama than that offered in the Hay-Herran treaty. While stress continued to be laid upon the supposed unconstitutionality of cession of sovereignty over the canal



SENATOR SMOOT

strip, which, according to the Colombian interpretation, was required by the rejected treaty, there were strong indications that the statesmen chiefly wanted to get a great deal more money than the treaty offered them. The President and Secretary Hay continued to await the pleasure of the Colombian government, and no move was made to begin negotiations for the Nicaragua route. Meanwhile, representatives of the French Canal Company, which has $40,000,000 at stake, manifested much nervousness regarding the situation at Bogota. Efforts by the Colombian government to obtain a considerable share of the purchase money were made during the past summer, and are still being made. It was reported at Washington, last month, that a solution of the matter might be found in the surrender by the company to part of the demands of the Colombian statesmen and the division of the money. The French stockholders are absolutely dependent upon the ratification of the treaty for the large payment by the United States which they greatly desire. It may not have become apparent yet to the Colombians that the Washington government will pay them no more for

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DR. HERRAN
Minister of Colombia

the canal strip than the sums offered in the Hay-Herran treaty; if so, their delay in coming to a conclusion, which delay seems to be meant, in part at least, as an invitation to Washington to increase its price, may continue for some time longer.

Conditions on the Isthmus

It is asserted at Bogota that the unanimous rejection of the Hay-Herran treaty was due largely to the tone of certain communications made to the Colombian government by United States Minister Beaupré, which was thought to be threatening. A message from Secretary Hay, transmitted by Minister Beaupré, to the effect that if Colombia neglected to ratify the treaty as it stood, the United States would be forced to take measures that would be "a source of regret to all friends of Colombia," unquestionably has a belligerent sound. It may be supposed, however, that Mr. Hay merely wished to warn the Colombians that if the treaty were rejected, the Nicaragua route for the canal would be chosen; still, if the Colombians thought the American secretary's message was meant to convey a threat of another sort, its effect on them naturally was the same as that which would have been produced by a genuinely threatening message. Bogota has been agitated for some time by rumors from irresponsible sources to the effect that if the province of Panama should secede from Colombia, the United States would hasten to negotiate a canal treaty with it as an independent nation. Possibly Secretary Hay's message was thought to intimate that such a result would follow the rejection of the Hay-Herran treaty. One could have wished to find a somewhat different tone in the secretary of state's dispatches, though the attitude of the Colombian statesmen toward the very liberal treaty was exasperating enough to try anybody's patience. As regards talk of a revolt in Panama, though there has been a great deal of it recently, nothing seems likely to come of it. Panama, however, has little in common with the rest of Colombia, from which it is separated by great natural obstacles, and its disappointment over the rejection of the treaty is exceedingly bitter. As a precaution against disturbances on the isthmus, the Colombian authorities have removed Governor Mutis, a warm advocate of the treaty, Senator Obaldia succeeding him. General José Cobos, the military commander who recently overturned the civil government of Panama by way of expressing his disapproval of its attitude toward him, has been replaced by an officer who, one must hope, will show himself less emotional than the valiant Cobos.

Alaskan Boundary Matters

From September 15 to October 8, the Alaskan Boundary Commission, in session in London, listened to arguments by counsel on the evidence presented to establish the proper line separating American from Canadian territory south of the 151st degree of west longitude. Sir Robert Finlay, British attorney-general, opened the arguments and spoke for eight days. He held that the treaty between Great Britain and Russia did not base on an error its reference to mountains marking the boundary between the possessions of the two countries. The Mount St. Elias Alps and the crests at White and Chilkoot

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JACOB M. DICKINSON

Counsel for the United States before the Alaskan Boundary Tribunal, who made the closing argument on the American side

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AN ALASKAN MOUNTAIN RANGE
The British claim declares that the United States ignores the existence of this range in fixing the boundary

passes were mentioned as proving that actual mountains were referred to in the treaty. The Portland canal and adjacent islands and the head of the Lynn canal, the latter giving direct access to the Klondike country, were clearly the prizes desired by Canada. Mr. T. D. Watson, on behalf of the United States, began his argument September 24, and closed four days later. He insisted that the United States bought Alaska from Russia with no unsettled claims pending, the boundary having been positively fixed by the treaty of 1825, Great Britain thereafter conceding Russia's right to the country ten marine leagues back from the heads of the deep inlets. Arguments for Canada were then made by Christopher Robinson and Solicitor-General Carson, who contended that the question of the boundary had always been kept open by the British government. Jacob M. Dickinson, of American counsel, closed the arguments in a five days' speech, which is represented to have been very convincing. On October 12, the members of the commission began their private meetings to consider their verdict. The utmost confidence of a favorable decision was expressed by the American counsel at the end of the hearing.

Delaware's Disgrace

The State of Delaware deliberately refuses to punish lynchers. After the lynching at Wilmington, few voices within the state were raised in behalf of the punishment of the lynchers. The grand jury before which were brought charges against eight of the mob on September 29, refused to return indictments in the face of evidence as to the identity of the prisoners which is said to have been conclusive. The machinery of the law having thus failed to accomplish the ends of justice, the crime will go unpunished. The disgrace seems to sit lightly upon both town and state. In striking contrast with this miscarriage of justice in Delaware are recent cases in Illinois and Indiana, and more recently in Tennessee. On October 6, no less than twenty-seven men were indicted in Lynchburg, Tennessee, for murder, on account of the lynching of a negro. It is doubtful, of course, whether convictions on such a charge can be secured, but if there should be a legal execution of twenty-seven men in Tennessee as a punishment for this crime, it would have a lasting influence for good throughout the entire country. Thanks to the attitude of several southern governors, public sentiment in the South is gradually rising against the crime of lynching, and the example of Tennessee will not be without its influence.

Senator Carmack's Plan

The nation at large has not been led to regard Senator Carmack, of Tennessee, as a particularly wise statesman. His present proposal to introduce in Congress at its next session a bill for the repeal of the fifteenth amendment to the Federal Constitution will not tend to increase such popular confidence as he now enjoys. Senator Carmack says, however, that his purpose is merely to cause discussion of the negro question. Presumably, he harbors no illusions as to the fate of any bill of the sort suggested, since it would require a two-thirds vote in both branches of Congress and the approval of the legislatures of two-thirds of the states of the Union in order to prevail. Most of the southern states have already eliminated the negro from politics, without caring very much about the fifteenth amendment, but Senator Carmack is not satisfied. The United States Supreme Court has shown itself reluctant to interfere in this matter, holding that states have the right to fix the qualifications for their own voters and seeing no violation of the Constitution in the ingenious "grandfather clause," which shuts out the illiterate negro and lets in the illiter-

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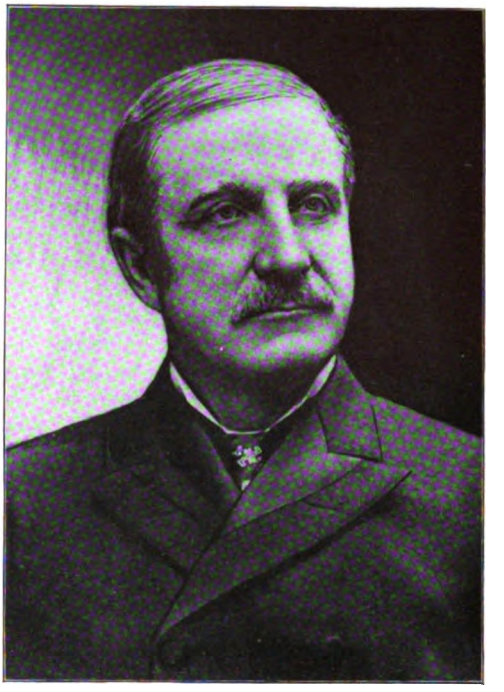
ate white man. Senator Carmack realizes that some day the negro is likely to become educated and demand his rights under the Constitution, unless the Constitution shall cease to give him rights. When the negro shall have become fully qualified intellectually to cast his vote, thus disproving the theory that he is not competent to participate in affairs of government, it may be impossible for Senator Carmack and the rest to shut him away from the ballot-box if the Constitution retains the fifteenth amendment. However, it may be supposed that northern Democrats will not altogether relish the discussion which Senator Carmack desires to precipitate, since the proposition to take the ballot away from the negro by withdrawing federal protection from him and leaving him at the mercy of the state in which he lives must have a harmful effect upon their chances to get negro votes. Thus Carmack presumably will be silenced presently. Men like Vardaman, of Mississippi, who are planning by state laws to take from the negro some of his present opportunities to get an education, are far more dangerous to the nation than are statesmen of the Carmack type.

A Class Feud in the Adirondacks

The Adirondacks have been disturbed during the past month by outbreaks of violence directed against the wealthy New Yorkers who own game preserves there. One landowner was assassinated, and several others, among them Mr. William Rockefeller, have been threatened in anonymous letters. The cowardly assailants have no justification for their crimes, but there is a good deal to be said in explanation of the resentment felt by the mountain backwoodsmen against the absentee landlords who have deprived them of a living. Property rights of one sort are carefully respected in the woods; but property rights which involve the loss of livelihood to hunters, trappers and fishermen without reasonable necessity on the part of the millionaire owner are hard to demonstrate to a mountaineer. Even in England, where many centuries ought to have accustomed the peasantry to the idea of forbidden ground in wild regions, poaching is common. If the owners of these great estates would make their rules



WILLIAM ROCKEFELLER
Who has been threatened with assassination by natives of the Adirondacks

a little more reasonable and try to give employment to some of the natives, instead of importing gamekeepers and foresters from England and Germany, they might have less trouble.

Storm and Flood in the Eastern States.

A strip of the Atlantic coast extending from Portland, Maine, to Norfolk, Virginia, and measuring in many places a hundred miles wide, underwent devastation, by wind and water, October 8 to 11, such as that section of country had never known before. Over a dozen lives were lost. Vessels were wrecked by terrific gales; rivers, especially the Hudson, Delaware, Passaic and Ramapo, were swollen far above any of their previous flood-lines by several days of steadily pouring rain. In Greenwood cemetery, Brooklyn, graves were torn open and headstones and coffins scattered by landslides. In New York city and Brooklyn many of the streets were under water, which created islands in various parts of those cities, and miles of outlying territory were submerged. Cab service was

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replaced by that of boats and rafts. At Paterson and Passaic, New Jersey, scores of mills, business houses and dwellings were so nearly submerged that the people caught in them by the flood had to be rescued in boats. The damage to property in these two places alone is estimated at over $4,000,000, to say nothing of the fact that thousands are thrown out of work because of the stopping of the factories. Seven other towns, situated on the Delaware, Passaic and Ramapo rivers, were practically submerged. All through that portion of the stricken region between New York city and Philadelphia communication by telephone, telegraph and rail was cut off for two days. Part of the usual consignment of new currency from Washington, amounting to $3,000,000, was received in New York, October 10, so badly damaged by Delaware river water that nearly half of it had to be returned to Washington as unusable. The flood burst into the Pennsylvania railroad tunnel, now being dug under the Hudson river, and the twelve men at work there had a desperate fight for their lives. One of them was buried alive in mud and two others were taken out unconscious. Along the Delaware river bridges and wharves were swept away by scores. At Philadelphia, on October 10, ferry boats could not enter their slips, as the river was above the docks and piers, and all vessels rode on a level with the streets. Along the seacoasts of New Jersey and Maryland hurricanes and high tides wrecked many vessels and swept away hundreds of cottages and hotels. Ocean City, Maryland, was submerged and deserted. Wreckage was strewn along the Virginia coast for twelve miles. Even in Long Island Sound, the Norwich line passenger steamer City of Worcester was swept on rocks in a gale blowing sixty miles an hour. It was not until October 12 that the wind lulled and the floods began to recede; and still many missing boat crews and other persons are unaccounted for and there is no approximate estimate yet of the millions of dollars' worth of property destroyed.

American Cities

New York's Municipal Campaign.

New York has had several reform administrations, but none that has been able to hold office for more than a term at a time. In other words, New York heretofore has had reform by spasms. Progress would be made, only to be followed by reaction and the resuscitation of Tammany at the next election. The enemies of good government were effectually routed two years ago, but they are up again and fighting hard for another chance at the spoils. The country is watching eagerly to see whether New York has yet developed to the point where it can sustain a good government movement twice in succession. Throughout the maze of complications of one kind or another enveloping the campaign, the issue between good government and misrule stands out so plainly that none should be deceived. Mr. Low may be to some extent lacking in qualities that appeal to the popular mind. He is neither magnetic nor picturesque. But his administration of the affairs of New York city for the past two years has been truly an administration in the interest of the whole people.

DISTRICT-ATTORNEY WILLIAM TRAVERS JEROME
Whose attack on Mayor Low was a sensational feature of New York mayoralty campaign

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That he deserves reëlection and is the natural leader of the fusion forces in another contest was conceded on all sides. District Attorney Jerome's was practically the only voice raised in protest, and his opposition, apparently inspired in part by intriguers who had his ear, was based on the idea that Low had not a pleasing personality and therefore could not be elected. The net effect of Jerome's ill-considered criticism undoubtedly was to strengthen Low and win him supporters.

Grout Shows Weakness.

Mr. E. M. Grout, who had been elected on the anti-Tammany ticket with Low two years ago, has made a good record as comptroller, as had also Mr. Fornes, another Brooklyn Democrat holding an elective office under the fusion administration. The fusion program called for the renomination of all the outgoing officials. At this point the diabolical cleverness of Tammany manifested itself. Under the Greater New York charter, the mayor is patronage distributer and the all-powerful official. Tammany is willing to sacrifice anything to capture the mayoralty, its nominee for that office being Congressman George B. McClellan, whose associations give ground for the belief that he would, if elected, be another Van Wyck, and take orders from the "boss" who nominated him. The Tammany leader, Charles Francis Murphy, offered to place Grout and Fornes on the Demo-

GEORGE B. McCLELLAN
Son of the General; Tammany's Candidate for Mayor

INDIAN ENCAMPMENT IN LINCOLN PARK, CHICAGO

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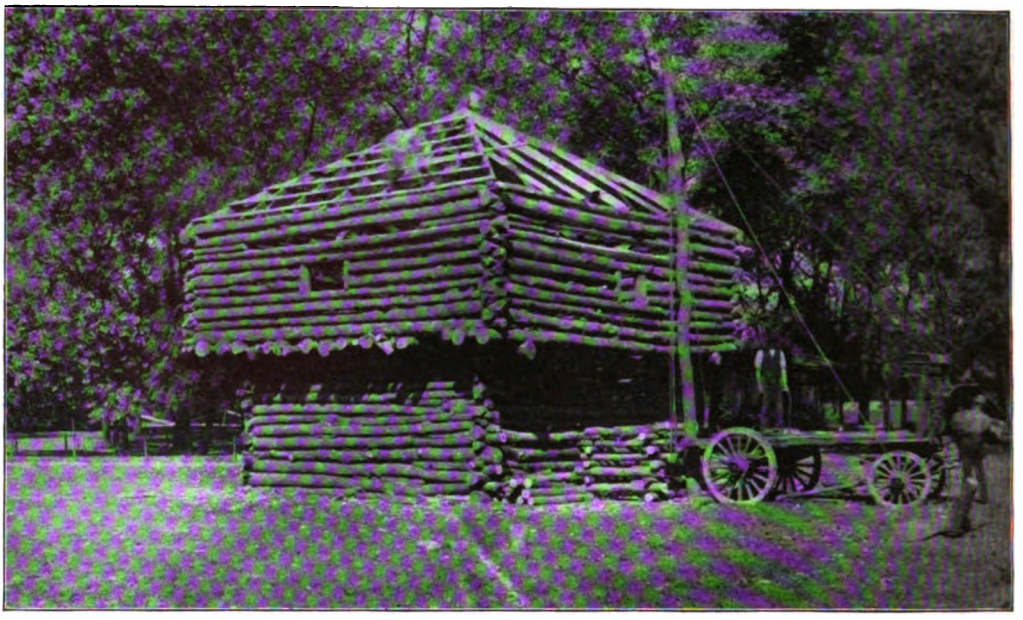

CHICAGO' CENTENNIAL: A REPRODUCTION OF ONE OF THE BLOCKHOUSES OF FORT DEARBORN

cratic ticket. Now, there are oftentimes circumstances in which it is perfectly proper for a candidate to accept a nomination on two tickets, but this was no such occasion. It soon became evident that Grout's intention was to leave Low to make the battle alone against Tammany for his own election. Naturally, the fusionists resented such a course on Mr. Grout's part. They reassembled their conventions and made other nominations in place of Grout and Fornes, these candidates threatening meanwhile to take legal steps to keep their names on the fusion ticket. The course of Grout and Fornes in this matter was clearly reprehensible. The attitude throughout all the trying situations of the campaign of Mr.

THE INDIANS' OUTDOOR KITCHEN AND THE CURIOUS CROWD

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Low and of R. Fulton Cutting, the leader of the fusionist movement, has been such as to evoke respect and confidence. The chief issue of the campaign as presented in the platforms is that of partisanship as opposed to independent voting in local elections. Tammany boldly declares that McClellan ought to be elected mayor, because New York is a Democratic city. The fusionists ask Low's election because he will best serve the people of New York. It is encouraging to note that the good government movement in the eastern metropolis is beginning to take account of the city council as well as the mayoralty, Mr. Cutting himself having consented to be a candidate for alderman in his home ward.

Chicago Centennial Celebration

Chicago's centennial celebration during the week beginning September 27 was a conspicuous success, and had many picturesque features. Chief among these was the Indian encampment in Lincoln Park. Members of the several tribes which formerly made their home near the site of the city, the Pottawattomies, Chippewas, and others, were brought from Michigan and pitched their tepees in the North Side pleasure ground. There they displayed to admiring crowds Indian customs and sports. A reproduction of one of the blockhouses of old Fort Dearborn, erected of unhewn logs in the park as a feature of the celebration, will be retained as a permanent monument of the city's early days. Aside from these lighter phases of the centennial week, perhaps the most notable event was the banquet at which Mayor Low was the principal speaker and mayors of other cities were among the invited guests.

Visit of the London Artillery Company.

Features of the entertainment of the Honorable Artillery Company of London, headed by the Earl of Denbigh, during the fortnight's visit of that body in this country, were well calculated to promote friendly feeling between the two great English-speaking nations of the world. The British guests arrived in Boston on their second visit to the United States, October 2, landing from their steamer, The Mayflower, in Charleston, almost on

LORD DENBIGH
Colonel of the London Honorable Artillery

the spot where their ancestors landed to attack Bunker Hill. The British flag was hoisted over the Bunker Hill monument, in spite of much local indignation, an honor that was not accorded even to the Prince of Wales on his American visit. The Ancient and Honorable Artillery Company of Boston acted as host. On the occasion of the splendid banquet, costing $60,000, given to the Honorables by the Ancients, according to plans first thought of five years ago, the text of the speeches was the strengthening of the bond of friendship between America and Britain. The most notable were those of United States Senator George F. Hoar ("Old Mother England") and ex-Governor John D. Long, Governor Bates and Mayor Collins of Boston. Senator Hoar expressed the spirit of the occasion in the words: "When you go back to old Mother England, tell her that her boys are contented and happy and growing. Give her our best love." The Honorables sojourned five days in Boston, after-

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ward visiting New York, West Point, Washington, Niagara Falls, Toronto and Montreal. Then they returned to Boston and embarked for home. The existence of the Honorable Artillery Company of London, the oldest and most famous military body in the world, dates back to August 25, 1507, when it was organized by King Henry VIII with the purpose, according to his charter, "to practice in the science of artillery with the long bowes, cross bowes and hand gonnes in the artillery garden." Emigrant Honorables organized the Ancients in 1638. The two bodies have always maintained relations.

Industry and Commerce

Trusts Once More

Under the new federal law expediting suits brought against trusts, it is to be expected that the United States Supreme Court will render its decision soon in the Northern Securities case. It will be remembered that last April the United States Circuit Court of Appeals for the Ninth District gave a unanimous decision in support of the government's contention that the Northern Securities Company, owning a majority of the stock of the Northern Pacific and Great Northern railroads, was illegal under the Sherman anti-trust law. Upon the decision of the Supreme Court in this case very likely depends the Attorney-General's policy in regard to bringing further prosecutions. The lull in the formation of combines which has followed the absorption of the surplus money of investors and the distinctly unfavorable showing made by some of those formed in the heyday of the movement, have turned the public's attention somewhat from the harmful features of such gigantic aggregations of industry and capital. It may be supposed, however, that the exigencies of a national political canvass will bring the evils of trusts prominently to the front next year. In the present campaign in Ohio, John H. Clarke, who has been named by the Demo-

THE HONORABLE ARTILLERY COMPANY OF LONDON ON WASHINGTON STREET, BOSTON

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cratic party of that state as its candidate for the United States Senate against Senator Hanna, is urging that tariff protection be withdrawn from the products of oppressive trusts. Governor Cummins, of Iowa, notwithstanding the omission this year of the so-called "shelter clause" from the tariff plank of the Republican state platform, insists in his campaign speeches that he has not changed his attitude upon this subject. He now goes so far as to declare that the purchase of independent plants by a corporation, for the purpose of suppressing competition, marks it as a "vicious and unlawful combination," and he insists that "all the powers of the government should be employed for its annihilation." What, however, if, after it has ended competition, it lowers the price of its products or at least does not raise the price? Evidently this nation is sorely in need of a decision by the Supreme Court which shall clarify the subject of trusts and mark the difference between beneficial combinations and those which are harmful and unlawful. Perhaps the decision in the Northern Securities case will supply the lack.

The Collapse of Great Trusts

A few years ago, when the epoch of enormous trust formations opened, there were those who ventured to predict that such enormous capitalization of the extreme earning power of a corporation must sooner or later bring disaster. It is by no means an anomaly that such prophecies should find fulfilment in the case of the iron and steel industries. The United States Steel Company, the United States Ship Building Company and the Consolidated Lake Superior Company have all alike suffered from the impossibility of maintaining dividends on stock that was unadulterated water. The two latter companies have, even in

STATUE OF GENERAL W. T. SHERMAN
Unveiled at Washington, October 15
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FRANCIS H. CLERGUE
Founder of the Consolidated Lake Superior Company

financing, practically gone into bankruptcy, and United States Steel has cut the dividend on its common stock in halves. This is bad enough, but it is only part of the story. The collapse of two of the companies mentioned has led to the disclosure of the methods of the great promoters of such combinations. In the case of the United States Ship Building Company, these disclosures, made by the trust company that attempted to finance the undertaking, are discreditable to the various parties concerned. A manufacturing plant worth $9,000,000 was sold to the trust for $30,000,000, with the express understanding that the stock of the promoters should be sold before that of the company's treasury. Men who had no immediate share in the underwriting of stock seem to have compelled the actual promoters to pay them huge premiums for their advice and influence. The disclosure has brought a series of denials and counter-contradictions from J. P. Morgan & Co. and Harris, Gates & Co., the two houses connected with the promotion of the United States Ship Building Company, but the publication of the actual documents in the case has weakened public confidence in all the trust securities. When it is further recalled that the iron and steel industries begin to show less earning capacity, it is not difficult to foresee that the great trusts are approaching the moment of supreme test. It may yet appear that the best antidote for the trust evil is the trust itself. At all events, for some time yet, promoters are not likely to find it easy to float corporations organized under the laws of New Jersey, with capitalization three times that of the actual cost of the properties involved!

The Soo Disaster

The collapse of the Consolidated Lake Superior Company reveals the extraordinary ease with which men, during the years of trust promotion, invested their money in extravagant schemes. The inevitable failure of this new trust is attributed to three causes, all of which are patent in its franchise. The charter which the Soo Company secured from the Connecticut legislature, under the corporation act of that state, imposes no restriction upon the capitalization, fixes absolutely no relation between the assets and the capitalization; it authorizes the

JUDGE PETER S. GROSSCUP
Of the United States Circuit Court of Appeals, who is said to have declined the offer of the Northern Securities Company to represent it before the Supreme Court

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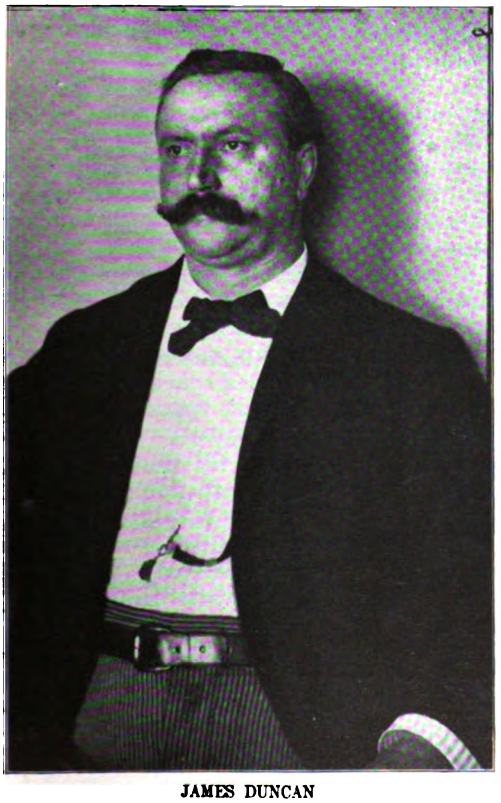
company to establish and operate power canals, mines and railroads, absorb other concerns and do almost anything else almost anywhere on earth; it absolutely relieves everybody concerned of all responsibility, in the promotion or direction, for any statements, promises or representations. Yet, in the face of all these defects, millions of dollars flowed into the trust, capitalized at $100,000,000, until the liquidation came as a result of the failure of the directors to raise $5,000,000 to pay a loan from the Speyer syndicate. Thus was presented the spectacle of so huge a trust unable to get hay for its horses on credit and the presence of the Canadian militia to suppress a riot of unpaid employes.

The Miller Case

Looking back upon the turmoil raised over the case of W. A. Miller, assistant foreman of the binding department of the Government Printing Office at Washington, one is struck by the singular unwisdom displayed in relation to it by various labor organizations. President Roosevelt, last July, ordered Miller's reinstatement on finding that he had been dismissed because he was not a trades-unionist. So gross a violation of reason and justice, not to mention the law, as denial to all except members of trades-unions of the right to labor for the government must have shocked thoughtful trades-unionists themselves; yet the attempt to force the President to recede from his position threatened for a time to become formidable. To members of the executive council of the American Federation of Labor, whom he received September 29, the President made it clear that he would neither violate the civil service law by dismissing Miller for being a non-union man, nor would he blink at the fact that, as President of the whole people, he has nothing more to do with questions of unionism and non-unionism than he has with questions of religious differences among persons in the public service. The charge that Miller was personally unfit, he held to be a subject for



JAMES DUNCAN
Vice-president of the American Federation of Labor
(Copyright, 1908, by Waldon Fawcett)

FRANK MORRISON
Secretary of the American Federation of Labor
(Copyright, 1908, by Waldon Fawcett)

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investigation in the regular routine of the department. Miller, as a man, of course, is of no more importance to the public at large than other men, and the principle that non-unionists and trades-unionists have equal rights in this republic is too important to rest upon the personal qualities of any individual. The foolish suggestion that organized labor oppose the President henceforth because of his action in the Miller case has received no encouragement from sensible men in its ranks. In view of his advocacy of important labor legislation, such as the eight-hour day, and of his action in bringing to a close the strike of anthracite coal-miners, opposition to him by trades-unionists as a body would be particularly absurd.

Sports

Football Prospects in the East

The football season may be said now to have fairly opened. The results of the early games, however, do not yet warrant any specific prophecies concerning the future standing of the various teams. In the East, Harvard's defeat by Amherst certainly argues that Yale should again defeat her old rival, but both teams were too green to put such a conclusion quite beyond question. Yale, too, has had difficulty in its early games, although always victorious. Princeton's decisive defeat of Brown argues well for good early condition. Cornell and Columbia have had difficulty in disposing of Colgate and Williams, respectively, while Pennsylvania has hardly met a team of strength. As far as any generalization is possible, it would seem as if the small colleges were getting their teams into condition earlier than their larger rivals.

In The West

The western teams are rounding into shape rapidly. The day is past when eastern football can claim any marked preëminence over western, and it is not rash to hazard that as yet there are probably no teams in the East which show any more promise than those of Michigan, Minnesota and Chicago. The latter especially, in view of its game with Purdue, seems likely to develop an exceptionally strong team. Michigan is evidently to play a hard, fast game, worthy to compare with that of its wonderful eleven of last year. Minnesota, with its veterans, not only has weight, but is clearly developing speed as well. The prospects of Wisconsin and Illinois are somewhat uncertain, as both seem to be reaching condition much more slowly than the three teams mentioned, but both universities are sure to make a good showing before the season closes. Northwestern bids fair to have a weaker eleven than the efforts of its management deserve.

The New Football Rules

The changes in the football rules made this year by the rules committee representing various colleges have given rise to more uncertainty and difference of opinion as regards their effect on the game than any similar legislation in recent years. Predictions of the probable results of these rules made by recognized authorities on the game agree mainly in being extremely cautious and non-committal. The rules committee seems to have accomplished three important results. The first is the encouragement of more open play in the middle part of the field, that is, between the twenty-five-yard lines. When the ball is put in play in this section, at least seven men must be on the line of scrimmage. This prevents the drawing back of a guard or tackle to aid in forming mass interference for the runner, and insures a more open style of play. It is provided also that within this central section the quarter-back may advance the ball beyond the line of scrimmage, provided he crosses the line at a point not less than five yards from where the ball was put in play. In order to aid the referee in judging this play it is planned to mark the space within the twenty-five-yard line with lines running parallel to the side lines, in addition to the ordinary five-yard lines. This will give the center of the field the appearance of a checker-board. Under the old rules, the team that was scored against was obliged to kick-off, thus giving the ball to their opponents for another attack on their goal. It was not at all unusual,

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MISS BESSIE ANTHONY
Women's Golf Champion of the United States

under this rule, for a weak team to be on the defensive practically all the time. The second object of the new rules is attained by eliminating this source of disadvantage to the weak team, by giving them the choice of kicking-off after a touch-down, or of forcing their opponents to kick to them.

Lessening Rough Play

The third change of general importance is one that is designed to lessen roughness in the play and the consequent chance of injury to the player. Three modifications are made looking to this end: 1. The wearing of all hard pads, leather or papier-maché helmets, and so forth, is prohibited, and the umpire has full power of judgment as to whether the protection for one man may prove a source of injury to another. 2. The linesman, under the new rules, is a much more important official than before. He is now obliged to make decisions covering off-side play in the line, tripping and unnecessary roughness to a back after a kick. 3. It is no longer possible for a man to run up the field under his own kick and either get the ball himself or put his men "on side" so that one of them may get it. These last two modifications—the increase in the powers of the linesman and the modification of the play of the full-back—should be sufficient to put an end to the "roughing" of the kicker, that has come to be so marked and disagreeable a feature of some of the big games. On the whole the changes seem to promise a marked advance in the development of the game. We shall have open play in the central part of the field, and opportunity for the old style from the twenty-five-yard line to the goal. The change in the rules governing the advancement of the ball by the quarter-back gives an opportunity for a large number of clever and unusual combinations and trick plays, and will tend to quicken the play materially. The modification of the football armor, so marked a feature of the past few years, and increased powers of the linesman, should do much to limit unnecessary roughness and the danger of injury, and in general the game will gain in rapidity and variety of play and consequently in interest to the spectator.

Women's Golf.

The first play for the national golf championship ever held in the West constituted a strenuous week for all the women concerned. The hard-won victory of Miss Bessie Anthony, of Chicago, made an auspicious beginning for the holding of national contests on midland links. Moreover, several other western women besides Miss Anthony and Miss Carpenter defeated eastern players. On the first day, Miss Miriam Anthony, sister of the champion, defeated Miss Florence Borden, of Fall River, Massachusetts, by 5 up, 4 to play. Miss Edith Collins, of the St. Louis Country Club, defeated Miss Frances Griscom, of Philadelphia, the champion in 1900, by 2 up, 1 to play. Miss Margaret Morris, of Dixon, Illinois, a member of the Evanston Golf Club, won against Miss Estelle Murray, of Wilmington, by 4 and 2. In the second round on Wednesday afternoon, September 30, Miss Bessie Anthony

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defeated Mrs. Fox; Miss Frances Everett, of Exmoor, outplayed Miss Jane Spence, of Philadelphia, winning by 1 up in nineteen holes, after Miss Spence had apparently clinched a victory. Miss Carpenter bested Miss Wells, of Boston, by 5 and 4. On the last day, Friday, October 2, came the memorable match between Miss Bessie Anthony and Miss Osgood. The Boston player, badly advised by her brother who was caddying for her, seemed to spare herself in the earlier part of the game, while Miss Anthony, out in 45, maintained a killing pace until, on the return journey, she found herself dormy 4. Finally, just as Miss Anthony seemed to have everything her own way, she began to show signs of fatigue and make poor plays. Then Miss Osgood suddenly began to play at a smashing rate, taking every chance without making a single mistake. By a long drive, a fine brassey and perfect play on the green she made the seventeenth hole in 4, and found herself only 1 down, with 1 to go. Miss Anthony gained a half by a clever approach from the long grass, and so barely escaped the necessity of an extra-hole match with a dangerous opponent.

MISS RHONA ADAIR
Women's Golf Champion of Great Britain, who has been playing at Philadelphia

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The standing of the clubs in the principal leagues at the close of the baseball season was as follows:

NATIONAL LEAGUE.

	W.	L.	Pct.
Pittsburg	91	49	.650
New York	84	55	.604
Chicago	82	53	.594
Cincinnati	74	65	.532
Brooklyn	70	63	.515
Boston	58	80	.421
Philadelphia	49	85	.363
St. Louis	43	94	.314

AMERICAN LEAGUE.

	W.	L.	Pct.
Boston	91	47	.660
Philadelphia	75	60	.555
Cleveland	77	63	.550
New York	72	62	.537
Detroit	65	71	.478
St. Louis	65	74	.467
Chicago	60	77	.438
Washington	43	94	.314

WESTERN LEAGUE.

	W.	L.	Pct.
Milwaukee	78	45	.634
Colo. Springs	74	50	.597
St. Joseph	62	53	.517
Kansas City	63	59	.516
Denver	57	69	.452
Peoria	55	67	.451
Omaha	51	71	.418
Des Moines	53	74	.417

THREE EYE LEAGUE.

	W.	L.	Pct.
Bloomington	72	47	.605
Decatur	67	51	.568
Davenport	65	53	.551
Rock Island	64	64	.542
Cedar Rapids	60	60	.500
Rockford	58	60	.492
Dubuque	49	72	.405
Springfield	42	80	.344

An Ocean Yacht Race

Sir Thomas Lipton's offer of a $2,500 cup for a yacht race across the Atlantic, to be open to all on equal terms, is a happy result of his otherwise unfortunate trip to the United States. He announced some time ago that if he won the contest for the America's cup he should undertake to change the conditions of international yacht racing in the direction of developing seagoing yachts. He has now determined to carry out this plan, even after his defeat. The general public will receive such a change with emphatic approval, for the utter uselessness of the type of yacht that has been evolved by the English and American designers for these international races has been a considerable damper on public interest in the contests. Whether in the case of a locomotive, a steamer, an automobile or a sailing vessel, the average person likes to see progress in speed that tends to the improvement of ordinary traveling conditions, rather than inventions which are merely mechanical curiosities.

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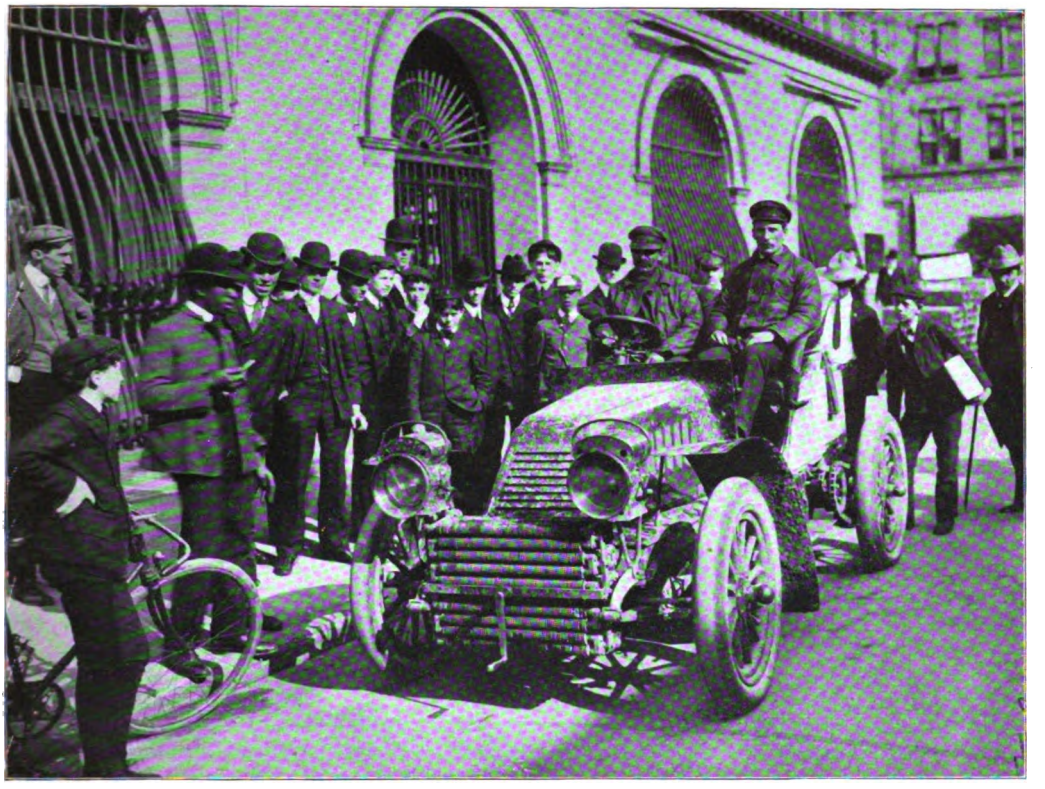

THE AUTOMOBILE WHICH MADE A RECORD RUN FROM CHICAGO TO NEW YORK IN SEVENTY-SIX HOURS

The Religious World

The Edwards Bicentennial

On October 5, Congregationalists all over the United States celebrated the bicentennial of Jonathan Edwards' birth. The general public thinks of Jonathan Edwards in the light of his famous sermon, "Sinners in the Hands of an Angry God." Nearly everybody has heard quoted at one time or another the famous passage from that sermon in which the preacher pictures the Almighty holding sinners over the fires of hell as one holds a spider over the fire. It has been one of the excellent results of the recent celebrations that this one-sided and unjust view of Edwards has been corrected by writers and speakers familiar with his real significance. Theologians who know him best place Edwards in the front rank of American thinkers, not excluding the ablest American philosophers of the nineteenth century. In order to understand his true intellectual stature, one must know the times in which he lived, the old Calvinistic system in which he was trained, and the errors which it was his lot to combat. The rigor of his logic is such that the most confident modern student of metaphysics is likely to meet with an unpleasant surprise when he first attempts to skim through and easily refute the profound treatises of this eighteenth-century philosopher. His influence upon American theology was potent down to the present generation. The profound change which has come over theological thought in America since 1880 has left us few links with the Calvinistic past. The most orthodox of preachers fall far short of accepting Jonathan Edwards' conception of the sovereignty of God and the unalterable fixity of human destiny. Edwards' chief message for the present generation is his exaltation of the majesty of God and the supreme duty of personal holiness and service. The tendency to-day is toward an ethical philosophy which makes much

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of social duties and ignores the duties of men to the Creator and Sustainer of the world. If new emphasis shall be given to this phase of Biblical truth because of the anniversary celebrations just held, it will be a good thing for the Christian churches of all denominations.

Episcopal Activity in Western Canada

The election of Rev. Dr. Newnham, Lord Bishop of Moosonee, to the new diocese of Saskatchewan, is a reminder of the rapid growth of the Canadian West, with its opportunities, religious as well as financial. This new diocese was set apart last year, up to which time it had been connected with the diocese of Calgary. It lies east of Alberta and north of Manitoba and Assiniboia, and is about six hundred miles long by two hundred miles wide. Bishop Newnham has had a missionary experience in the bishopric of Moosonee, and will lead the work in this northern section of the prairie country with courage and experience. The Archbishop of Rupert's Land (and primate of all Canada) has been given a coadjutor, in the person of Rev. Dean Matheson, of Winnipeg. This western country is rapidly calling for all the effort which the various churches of Canada can put forth; the Methodists and Presbyterians, it will be remembered, having agreed upon a plan of coöperation by which they will distribute their men to the best advantage by refraining from attempting to cover the same districts.

Dr. D. H. Greer a Coadjutor Bishop

At the recent diocesan convention of the Protestant Episcopal Church, in New York city, Bishop Potter recommended the election of a coadjutor bishop to assist him in his onerous duties. The recommendation was complied with by the election of Rev. Dr. David H. Greer, pastor of St. Bartholomew's church, one of the best known clergymen of the city. Bishop Potter turns over to his new assistant all confirmations in the principal parishes of the city, all consecrations of churches and ordinations, and all administration of discipline, assigning to him also one-half his own salary. Bishop Potter will devote his time to the visitation of rural churches and the admission of candidates for holy orders. It seems, in fact, as if the coadjutor bishop will in future be much more prominently before the public than the bishop himself. Doctor Greer was born in Wheeling, West Virginia, March 20, 1844. He received his education at Washington College, Pennsylvania, and the Protestant Episcopal Seminary at Gambier, Ohio. He was ordained in 1866, and his first charge was in Clarksburg, West Virginia. From there he went to Covington, Kentucky, and thence to Providence, Rhode Island, where he was rector of Grace church from 1871 to 1888, when he was called to St. Bartholomew's. He has thrice declined the episcopal office, refusing to become coadjutor in the dioceses of Pennsylvania and Rhode Island, and declining the bishopric of western Massachusetts.

The Y. M. C. A. in the Sutler's Business

A new and most practical form of religious work has been undertaken by the Young Men's Christian Association. Major-General Charles Dick, commanding the National Guard of Ohio, and Surgeon-General Edmund C. Brush, in conference with Governor Nash of Ohio, suggested that the State Committee of the Young Men's Christian Association be asked to manage the sutler's business at the recent National Guard camps. The committee complied with their request and conducted the four sutlers' tents. General Dick is highly pleased with the result. He writes that the service not only aided in promoting the health of the men, by reason of the healthful and palatable articles distributed, but also encouraged their sobriety by reason of the sale of refreshing and unadulterated drinks. "The experiment has been so successful that it has set a new standard for state encampments which I hope will not be departed from in the future." Much of the camp sickness in past years has been attributed to the sutler's stands, and it is thought that these have sometimes been made receiving stations for the smuggling of liquors into camp. The Ohio State Committee conducted four large tents under the direction of an experienced restaurateur, with a force of Y. M. C. A. men selling lemonade, ice cream, sandwiches and other refreshments.

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GIRLS' MISSION SCHOOL, SEOUL, KOREA

Korea as a Mission Field

The new importance given Korea as a possible cause of war between Russia and Japan calls fresh attention to one of the most promising mission fields. During September, a jubilee gathering of missionaries convened in Seoul to celebrate the twentieth anniversary of Protestant missions in Korea. The several Protestant churches at work in the country claim at least thirty thousand adherents. The baptized members would not reach half this number, but a great many Koreans attend church regularly, study the Bible, pray and are connected with churches as probationers or catechumens. Generally speaking, all Korea is open to missionaries as such, but all Korea is not open to foreign residence. This is permitted only within treaty limits, which includes Seoul and the principal seaports. But any foreigner can travel throughout the empire on passport, which when presented to a Korean official demands protection from violence. In each of the thirteen provinces of Korea missionary operations are successfully conducted, congregations of five or six hundred people being gathered in large cities, and it is said that in one station a congregation of fifteen hundred people is not an unusual occurrence.

Dowie's Restoration Host

John Alexander Dowie's "restoration host" of three thousand zealous followers has received much attention in the newspapers, both of Chicago and New York. The picturesque phase of the enterprise appeals to the public, and there is a tolerant attitude which has in the past been entirely absent among orthodox ministers and religious people. Whatever may be said of the personal pretensions of Dowie, his conspicuous ability as an organizer has come to be fully recognized. His plans for the New York campaign were most elaborate and complete. It is impossible to predict what impression his methods will make on the people of the eastern metropolis. Accustomed as they are to the unconventional and demonstrative ways of the Salvation Army and other religious workers in the down-town

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district, it will take something more than the ordinary Dowie audacity and assurance to move them. But where others have failed the prophet of Zion City may succeed. The ground has been thoroughly prepared by his agents, and whatever results may be accomplished during the campaign will be followed up by permanent representatives.

The Proposed Union of Three Denominations

There is considerable difference of opinion among Congregationalists as to the method of accomplishing the proposed union between their denomination and the United Brethren and Methodist Protestants. The movement has already gone so far that there is little doubt of the ultimate fusion of these bodies. Many prominent Congregationalists, however, declare themselves as opposed to anything more than federation at the present time, holding that to attempt organic union now would be to invite failure. The measure of affiliation suggested by the committee which has the matter in hand disappoints those who expected a complete merging of interests, but is deemed sufficient by the majority. Notwithstanding a noticeable trend toward a moderate degree of centralization among one class of Congregationalists, the general sentiment of the denomination remains as strongly individualistic as that of the Baptists, and any reform that is believed to lessen in any way the independence of the local congregations is sure to meet with opposition. Outsiders are hoping that with due safeguarding of interests these three denominations may before very long become one in name and in work, and thus lessen by two the number of the divisions of Christendom. This should mean no lessening of efficiency but rather a gain, unless the old theory about the advantages of interdenominational rivalry and strife still holds good.

The Churches and Evangelism

During the month of October state meetings of the missionary organizations of several denominations were held. The church year really begins in September, though some events date from January, others from April or May, when the national societies meet. If any general tendency can be discerned in the organized effort of the several denominations which hold these associational or conference or state meetings in October, it is the steadily increasing interest in evangelistic effort. Presbyterians, Baptists and Methodists are particularly active at present in planning religious campaigns for the coming months. After the lull of ten or fifteen years in evangelistic zeal, the churches throughout the country are again bringing this phase of religious work to the front. It is significant that this change is contemporaneous with the new interest in the religious education of children; for the fact proves that the religious education movement is not, as some have supposed, an effort to do away with "old-fashioned conversions" as a means of increasing the membership of the churches. The two types of work, educational and evangelistic, are found to be in no way antagonistic when education becomes spiritual and evangelism becomes sane.

Ministers and Mines

A flurry in the recent meeting of a Methodist conference in Illinois was caused by a resolution directing a close watch to be kept on supernumerary ministers, ordained men without charges, to see that they do not engage in the promotion of unsound business enterprises. Charges were made that some men whom the conference carries on its list had made themselves liable to severe criticism in this respect. Whether or not the charge be true in this particular case, it is the common talk of the business community that some ministers of various denominations are too ready to lend their names and influence to investment schemes that are speculative and unsafe. Ministerial influence attracts to these enterprises the small savings of persons who suppose they are investing in securities that are unusually sound and profitable, only to find when the crash comes that the doctors of divinity who vouched for the company and lent their names as directors disclaim all responsibility for loss. Every time this happens the cause of religion loses more than the paltry dollars which are the minister's price for the sale of his good name can ever make good.

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THE CURRENCY SITUATION

BY

J. LAURENCE LAUGHLIN

PROFESSOR OF POLITICAL ECONOMY, THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

FOR years the inadequacy of our obsolete currency system to meet the national demands of an increasing trade has been well recognized. The real difficulty in accomplishing reforms has been the unwillingness of party leaders to treat the questions solely as matters of business. The fact that the complex money problem has entered into politics has made it impossible in the past to get a straightforward treatment of it on its merits. This seems absurd; but so long as a political party can obtain an advantage over its opponents by holding back monetary legislation it is unlikely that the public will get anything serious. Even now, when evident evils are generally recognized, the politicians tell us that nothing can be done until there is an agreement on all sides upon some particular measure. That means little or no legislation at all; because, instead of going to work as experts and treating our currency scientifically and on the basis of experience, quite irrespective of votes, there is the deadly disposition to consult special interests. That is the bane of the present situation; and, in order to set forth the forces at work, and the schemes of reform proposed, I shall first indicate very briefly the existing deficiencies in our currency system, and afterward describe in outline the various plans now before the public.

1. The gold standard has never been fully established. The means of maintaining the interchangeability between our gold and silver coins was not provided in the act of March 14, 1900. The authority to redeem all silver coins in gold, and to dispose of any redundant silver coinage, should be given by Congress to the Secretary, accompanied by the grant of sufficient power to provide gold for this purpose. It is only fair that, having coined so much silver, we should protect it from any possible depreciation. We owe it to the common people, who use this silver money, that no occasion should ever arise when they should lose anything by an unexpected depreciation in its value. And on larger grounds, no great commercial country can afford to have the slightest suspicion existing as to the certainty of its standard; certainty is essential to the permanent employment of our labor, and to the stability of our home and foreign trade. The Secretary is required by law to maintain parity between gold and silver, but he is given no direct means of redeeming silver with gold. It is interesting, however, to have Secretary Shaw's interpretation of his duty on this point, in his speech of September 2, 1903: "By express statute it has become the duty of the Secretary of the Treasury to maintain the parity with gold of all forms of money coined or issued by the government, and express authority is given to negotiate loans, if necessary, for that purpose. In other words, the Secretary of the Treasury is directed to exchange gold for any and every kind and form of money coined or issued by the United States, and to bond the government to the last limit of his authority whenever such action is necessary to the maintenance of parity." But the "limit of his authority" does not permit the sale of bonds to acquire gold in order to redeem silver dollars, unless the Secretary infers this authority by some indirect interpretation.

2. The paper promises of the United States, payable on demand in coin, ought to be gradually retired. This paper money, known as United States notes (or "greenbacks"), when issued in the Civil War in a desperate emergency, was never intended to be a permanent part of our currency. Its existence in normal times excites no comment; but in times of emergency, or war, or depression, we shall have difficulty in maintaining its value by redemption in gold. Now is the time to root out this weakness from our system. No government is adapted to issue a

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demand paper money. It is not a bank, and so can have no conceivable means of ascertaining how much the demands of trade for currency may be, nor just how and when a run may be made on its reserves. It has absolutely no elasticity, and its existence is a suggestion of further issues when officials in great straits for means are likely to lose their heads. Such issues have always been the last resort of a bankrupt government; and in our present strong position there is no reason whatever why we should retain this possible source of danger in future emergencies.

3. The present national bank circulation is inelastic, and unsuited to the needs of trade. This maladjustment to our practical needs for a good medium of exchange is due to the system of securing the notes by a deposit of government bonds. In fact, any method of securing notes by a deposit of bonds is certain to be inelastic. An increased medium of exchange of this kind should be available just in proportion to increased transactions which happen to call for notes. When business is brisk and the exchanging of goods is active, capital is in demand, rates of interest are high; but when interest rates are high, the banks will be more inclined to lend their money direct rather than buy bonds and get little profit on their note issues. Then, when business is depressed, and rates of interest are low, it is more profitable to issue notes. Hence, under a bond-secured scheme, it is likely that the circulation will be contracted when most needed, and expanded when least needed.

In addition, it must be explained—although it is very little understood by the general public—that the issue of notes is not essential to the profits of national banks. The largest banks in our great cities have practically made no use of their right to put out notes; and yet these banks are the richest, and have the largest earnings of any in our country. The reason of this surprising fact is that these banks create another kind of medium of exchange by the use of checks drawn on deposits which costs nothing and which is even more efficient than notes. The profit of a bank arises from discounting, and it does not affect that profit whether the bank carries out the discounting by giving the borrower a deposit account on which to draw, or a quantity of its own notes. In either case, the bank creates a demand liability against itself, without changing its profits, except as one method is more expensive than the other. In short, the medium of exchange established by deposits-and-checks is the cheapest, most efficient, and the most generally used to-day. If, therefore, the other medium of exchange—national bank notes—is to be made satisfactory, it should be given, so far as is consistent with absolute safety to the public, the merits of cheapness, elasticity and efficiency already possessed by deposits-and-checks.

Moreover, government bonds ought not to be kept outstanding, when they could be redeemed, solely to provide a national bank circulation. It should be the policy of our country to pay off our interest-bearing debt.

4. There remains one other defect in our monetary situation worth discussion here: the shortcomings of our independent treasury system. Since 1846, modified in 1861 and later by slight changes, government moneys have been withdrawn from the public and kept in our national treasury. At present, the internal revenue taxes can by law be deposited by the Secretary in designated banks; but not so with the income from customs. Inasmuch as the withdrawal of funds from the money-market is likely to cause embarrassment to business, by aggravating the difficulty of getting loans when most needed, it should be possible to leave all government funds on deposit with responsible banks capable of giving proper security for their safekeeping. Our system is obsolete: no other great commercial nation follows our method.

Having thus briefly indicated the chief defects of our monetary system, it will be possible for us now intelligently to estimate the various schemes for reform before the public, accordingly as they meet or do not meet the defects already explained.

(1) The most complete scheme is that of the Indianapolis Monetary Commission, given in its report of 1898 (obtained by addressing H. H. Hanna, Indianapolis, Indiana). Some of the points in this scheme have been already enacted into law by the act of March 14.

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1900; of those not yet made into law the following summary may be made:

The right to sell bonds, if the general funds of the Treasury are insufficient, to keep a gold reserve large enough to secure the immediate redemption of all silver dollars presented.

The gradual withdrawal of all the greenbacks within ten years.

The issue of notes by national banks secured by their commercial assets, instead of, as now, by government bonds. A tax of two per cent is levied upon the amount of notes outstanding in excess of sixty per cent of the bank's capital, and six per cent on the excess over eighty per cent; while the outside limit is the unimpaired capital of the bank. These notes can be made unquestionably safe, since the assets represent the wealth of the country in the process of exchange. The amount of these notes is limited to the unimpaired capital of the issuing bank. A common guaranty fund of five per cent, in addition, will, without doubt, prevent any demands for the redemption of notes of failed banks from ever falling upon the general assets. But still further, the noteholder will have a lien on the stockholders' liability, which is equal to the par of their shares. Provisions are also made for an extension of the number of places where the notes can be redeemed, and for better and more frequent examinations of the bank, and for great publicity of these reports.

The Commission supports this plan with very clear reasons. The chief difference of the proposed, from the existing, system of bank notes is that it gradually does away with requirement of a deposit of bonds. As now, the notes are to be a first lien upon all the resources of the banks, including the shareholders. This new form of security is necessary because of the scarcity of United States bonds; and the attempt to substitute other bonds would lead to many evils. The change is wise because it permits the issuing of notes in the way and at the time when, and for the purpose for which, they would be issued under natural conditions, if no law prevented. Such a system would readily and quickly adjust itself from season to season to meet the wants of the business of the country requiring bank notes for its convenient transaction. Notes secured by assets of the bank can not fail to be safe, because, being based upon all the resources of the banks issuing them, they are based upon the whole business of the country, and that business is the thing which gives life and value to all securities, government, municipal, railway and individual obligations. Should the resources of the banks ever so shrink in value as not to be ample security for the amount of notes that could be issued under this plan, then all other securities, even government bonds, would become valueless. The banks are bound together for the security of these notes to accomplish the same purpose that the deposit of bonds is intended to accomplish, namely, to guard against loss through the misfortune or bad management of single banks, and thus save the holder of a bank note the need of ascertaining the standing of any bank.

In some quarters fear is expressed that there would be undue expansion under this plan. There is no danger of this. In these days, dangerous expansion does not take the form of the issue of bank notes, but of the extension of credits. Very few borrowers take their loans in the form of notes. It is just as possible for a great city bank which issues no notes to expand unduly as for any country bank which issues notes. The bank note is only one form in which he to whom credit is given will use that credit.

In other quarters, "asset-currency" is opposed by bankers because it would favor noteholders at the expense of depositors. Under the present system a part of the assets at least equal to that received in return for the issue of notes is, in the beginning, taken irrevocably away from the depositor; and, in order that it should not possibly fall into any other hands, it is invested in bonds and deposited with the government. Under the present system, therefore, the noteholder has a claim upon the assets of the bank prior to all other claims. The new system proceeds on the same principle. What the opponents of "asset-currency" wish to show, however, is that in case of mismanagement, a shrinkage of, say twenty-five per cent, in the value of assets ought to be averaged over all claims, including the noteholder; that if par is paid to noteholders, the absolute sum left to depositors is less than twenty-five per cent on their claims. This is a futile argument; because in no system can a possibility of doubt as to the absolute security of the notes ever be permitted. Full value must always go to the noteholder, who is remote and ignorant of the character of any special institution; while the depositor who is near and has chosen his bank by his own judgment

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must rely for his protection entirely upon methods of secured good banking management.

The issue of notes based on general assets of the bank has been opposed by ex-Comptroller Dawes on the ground that they would unduly enlarge the demand liabilities without corresponding growth in resources. This is strange banking doctrine. Under the present system, the granting of loans followed by a creation of deposits is a means of increasing the demand liabilities without the issue of notes. If there is any validity in this objection, why not make it unlawful for a bank to make loans which are followed by deposits, and an increase of demand liabilities? The objection is wholly aside from the point, and only serves to create useless alarm about a perfectly safe medium of exchange. The so-called "asset-currency" would have as good reason for its issue as any bank-draft, or any check. Whenever these notes are issued, the bank obtains a quantity of assets equal to or greater in value (if bankers do their duty) than the notes. There is no more reason for a bad result from the issue of these notes than from any discount of a bank. To say that they are dangerous to depositors is to assert that all bank loans are suspicious. Under a system of notes secured by general assets, any mismanagement of a bank would be more directly of importance to depositors; and it may be highly desirable to add to the necessity of watching the officials and the policy of a bank before depositing therein. The depositing constituency—and not the remote noteholder—is the very one which ought, in the public interest, to assume the responsibility of standing guard over the kind of assets taken by a bank as security for loans. A very strong argument might be made in favor of "asset-currency" on the very ground that it would ensure sounder banking through greater care and scrutiny of assets offered for loans.

(2) The bill known as the Fowler Bill, proposed by Hon. C. N. Fowler of New Jersey, chairman of the committee on banking in the House, and which was before Congress last winter, is a tentative scheme for "asset-currency." In its present form it omits earlier provisions regarding the retirement of greenbacks and other matters. It proposes only a beginning of issues not based on bonds, as follows:

The issue of notes, without any accompanying deposit of bonds, to the amount of twenty-five per cent of the capital of a national bank.

The deposit with the Treasury of bonds or coin of five per cent of this issue, to be used as a guaranty fund.

A tax of one-fourth of one per cent on the notes issued, to go to the guaranty fund.

These notes to be a first lien upon all the assets of the bank; and to be a legal tender for all uses except for duties on imports.

The same requirements for reserve should be kept for these notes, as for deposits; the guaranty fund to be a part of the reserve.

These notes must be redeemed at the counter of the bank, or in the redemption cities of New York, Chicago, or San Francisco. No bank is permitted to pay out the notes of another bank, but must forward them to some bank in one of the redemption districts.

The notes of a failed bank are payable in gold at the Treasury of the United States; the government will, then, recover the amounts from the assets of the bank.

In case the guaranty fund should fall below three per cent, a tax of not over one per cent in any one year may be levied upon all the outstanding circulation of all the banks, in order to make up the deficit.

The Fowler Bill, which has excited more or less antagonism from bankers, is an attempt to make a trial of "asset-currency," without going to the full extent of the plans offered by the Monetary Commission. The opposition of bankers is doubtless due to the unwillingness to become parties to any common guaranty fund, because good institutions are loth to be mulcted for the errors of badly managed banks. The experience with failed banks, however, shows that under our present system the losses from assets insufficient to cover the note issues would be practically insignificant. The good banks need have little fear on this account.

(3) In his bill given to the press informally as the one which he will urge during the coming winter, Mr. Fowler evidently intends to include some plan for impounding the greenbacks, and some substitute for the Aldrich Bill (in case the latter is not urged in the Senate). The provisions are briefly as follows:

Forty per cent of the cash reserves of national banks should be held in greenbacks. In this way they are less likely to be used in a run on the Treasury for gold.

The abolition of the independent treasury system by leaving all government moneys on deposit

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with the banks, which must pay two per cent interest, and give a first lien on their assets as security for the deposits.

The same general scheme of "asset-currency" as he proposed formerly, with the addition that the two per cent tax on deposits should be credited to the guaranty fund. When this fund exceeds $10,000,000, the excess is to be used in buying gold for converting greenbacks into gold certificates.

(4) While no one yet knows just what the managing group in the Senate proposes to allow in the way of monetary legislation—probably nothing important before the presidential election—it is interesting to know what position in regard to "asset-currency" has been taken by Secretary Shaw. In his Chicago speech of September 2, 1903, he made the following statement: "If I were given authority to formulate a measure that would provide the requisite elasticity to our present currency system, I think I should add an amendment permitting national banks, with the consent of the Comptroller of the Currency, to issue a volume of circulating notes equal to fifty per cent of their bond-secured circulation, at a tax of six per cent, the same to be retired at will or by direction of the Comptroller, by the deposit of an equal amount of lawful money with any subtreasury." This scheme is not worked out, nor has it any more value than an individual recommendation of a high official. It is to be noticed, however, that it is a plan to meet—not so much the seasonal elasticity from time to time—but the emergency arising in times of a crisis, when clearing-house certificates have been resorted to in the past. The high tax of six per cent is the same as that usually exacted for the use of clearing-house certificates, and precludes the use of such notes for normal discounts. And yet no additional security beyond the original deposit of bonds is demanded, the Secretary holding that the government should underwrite the notes. Of course, in that case, the Treasury would ultimately fall back on the general assets of the bank if a bank failed to take up these notes.

(5) The bill which last winter represented the wishes of the capitalistic-senatorial interests was known as the Aldrich Bill. It was evidently satisfactory to influential banking and political interests. Its plan was this:

All public funds may be deposited in designated national banks under security satisfactory to the Secretary of the Treasury; but the Secretary was empowered to receive as security bonds besides those of the United States; those of any state, those of any municipality twenty-five years old, which has not defaulted on the principal or interest of its debt in the preceding ten years, which has one hundred and fifty thousand inhabitants, and whose debt is not over ten per cent of its taxable property; and those of any railway which has paid four per cent regularly on its entire capital stock for ten years previous.

Banks shall pay a tax of not less than one and one-half per cent per annum on deposits, to be fixed by the Secretary.

Beyond the bonds thus held the Treasury shall have a first lien on all the assets of the banks concerned.

The same group of Senators who were behind this bill have been in consultation on currency legislation during the past summer, and intimations have been given out that no measure of a "radical nature" will be passed this winter. This doubtless means that no bill proposing any "asset-currency" will be allowed to pass. The reason, of course, is that, if before the next presidential election any financial disaster occurs, it might be assigned to the monetary legislation emanating from the party in power.

In all probability we shall see some bill presented during the winter having for its aim the unlocking of money taken from general circulation and sequestered in the Treasury. This provision of the Aldrich Bill is quite likely to appear again in some form, not only because it will be helpful to the money-market, but because it will be good politics to be able to say that the party in power has striven to keep as much money in circulation as possible; that if it takes in money in taxes, it puts it out again among the people immediately. It is quite evident that the possibility of coming financial depression is being guarded against. All the movements of the Treasury seem to be in the nature of preparations for the coming storm.

Out of all this discussion which has arisen from some well recognized defects in our monetary system, and which shows a wide-spread public interest in the subject, it is to be hoped that Congress will soon address itself to the task and give our public the legislation needed to put our currency in order before serious misfortune overtakes us.

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GUIDING THE FILIPINO TO SELF-GOVERNMENT

BY

MARION E. BEALL

CHIEF OF DIVISION OF COMPILATIONS, BUREAU OF INSULAR AFFAIRS, WAR DEPARTMENT

THE English saying, "as poor as a church mouse," has its equivalent in Spanish in the proverb, "as poor as a school teacher." The existence of such a saying is in itself a sad comment on the condition of public instruction in Spanish countries. Wherever teachers are but half paid, and that half received with distressing irregularity or not at all, the state of public instruction can not be other than bad. The noble profession of teaching is discredited, capable persons are driven to other employment, and the pupils are made to suffer in mind and morals by the example of those into whose care they are committed.

The less said about the condition of the public schools of the Philippines, prior to American occupation, the better. When the subject was taken up by the insular authorities it was found that a system would have to be built up from the very foundation. There were but few capable teachers, no proper text-books, and an almost entire absence of adequate buildings. No effort had ever been made to inaugurate a general system that would include all the schools of the archipelago. While there was a desire for education, there was no public school spirit and no conception of the essentials necessary to secure results.

It may not be out of place to quote from the letter of an American teacher in Panay, referring to what occurred in his school during a few days of enforced absence, as illustrative of the class of native material out of which teachers must be made:

> When I returned Wednesday morning, only two of my six teachers were present and my attendance had dropped from 140 when I left, to twenty-five when I returned. During my six days' absence scarcely any work had been done. My teachers are fully as badly demoralized as I expected they would be. M—— G—— was the only one that came on time. M—— H—— came half an hour late, and then wanted to be excused for the day. F—— G—— came an hour and a half late, and then only because I sent for him. N—— G—— was at home asleep and would not come at all, although I sent for him twice. He did not come to the school, but went to a cockfight instead, and, as there is another cockfight to-morrow, I have no reason to expect him at that time.

While this is no doubt an extreme case, it illustrates the fact that before anything in the way of reform can be accomplished, there must be breathed into the people the spirit of a new life.

The organization, therefore, accomplished under the direction of the Philippine Commission grafted the existing schools into itself instead of attempting to become a part of the preëxisting system. The archipelago was divided into thirty-six departments with a division superintendent in each. Under this organization, nearly one thousand American teachers were appointed and assigned to positions in different parts of the islands, gathering their pupils from city streets, Igorrote ranches, Moro towns, and even from the harems of Dattos of the Joló Archipelago.

Even before the commission took up the question of schools, army officers in the more peaceful parts of the islands appointed soldiers to teach in many of the pueblos, thus lighting the torch of learning at the smouldering camp fires of war and substituting the birch for the bayonet.

The American teachers were, as a rule, selected in two ways: either directly by the general superintendent, or by persons or institutions in the United States authorized to select a definite number. This plan secured a select body of instructors and the record they made justified the wisdom of the plan. The strong desire on the part of the more intelligent Filipinos to have their children educated, and the aptness of the children, have, as a rule, made the work of the American teacher easy while in the schoolroom,

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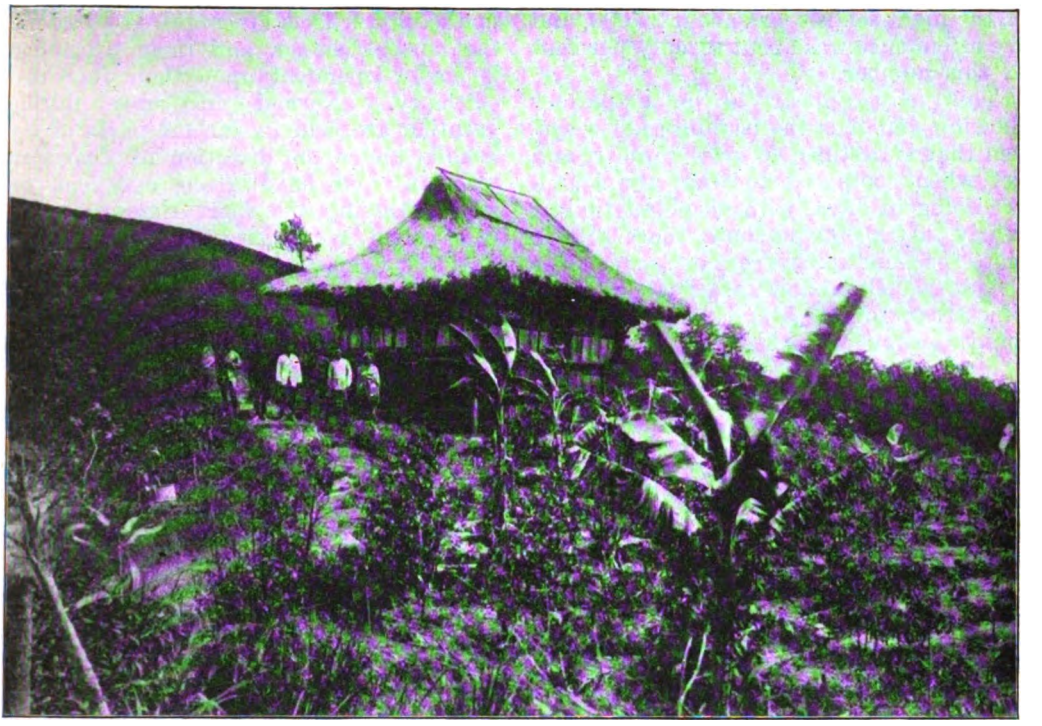

A COUNTRY SCHOOLHOUSE IN LUZON

and compensated, in a measure, for the privations that life in a new and strange country necessarily entailed. The people opened their homes to the strange people from across the sea and gave them a warm welcome, and then when the cholera afflicted the land, many teachers demonstrated their gratitude by caring for Filipinos afflicted with the plague, and four fell victims at the post of duty.

Most of the teachers who were first sent out under contract to remain for two years continued at work for the full period, and a majority of them have now renewed their promise to continue in the work, and as they have now been tried, have become acquainted with the people and with the local dialect, their usefulness will be greatly increased.

That the leaven of public instruction is working may be assumed from the following figures: In the day schools of Manila in July, 1901, the number in attendance was 5,123. On account of the cholera, at the same date in 1902, the number was but 3,044; otherwise there would have been a substantial increase, while unofficial reports for the present year show that there has been a marked increase in attendance over any previous year. In the report for 1901 it was stated that there were probably over 150,000 Filipino pupils enrolled in the free primary schools and over 75,000 in actual attendance. There were from 3,000 to 4,000 elementary Filipino teachers, and about 2,000 of them were receiving one hour of English instruction daily. There were at least 10,000 adults receiving instruction in English in the evening schools. During the year 1902, there were more than 200,000 Filipino pupils enrolled in the primary schools, about sixty-five per cent of whom were in actual attendance. The low per cent of attendance compared to the total enrollment shows that habits of punctuality and regularity need to be cultivated, and an improvement in this regard is already noted.

The number of Filipino teachers appointed by the division superintendent was 2,625 and the total estimated number employed was 3,400. There was in 1902 a combined teaching force of Americans and Filipinos of 4,227. The enrollment

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of the night schools was about 25,000, and the attendance was about seventy per cent of this number.

This may appear to be a meager showing, but it is the beginning of a system that is destined to grow rapidly, and yet when compared to what the Dutch are doing in Java, with its population of nearly 30,000,000, it shows more pupils, more teachers and more money spent for the 8,000,000 inhabitants of the Philippines than for three and a half times as many Javanese, and Java has been pointed out as the model colony of the Orient.

While the American teachers have already rendered important service in beginning the work of public instruction in harmony with American ideals, it is nevertheless true that the ultimate character of the public instruction in the Philippines must depend upon the character of the Filipino teacher which it will be possible to develop. With this object in view increased attention is being given to plans looking to the development of facilities for preparing Filipino teachers for more efficient work. These facilities have been furnished by the Manila normal school, and in addition to the students from the provinces, the natives employed in the city schools are required to attend the normal classes, and their promotion is made dependent upon their increased efficiency. Normal institutes during vacation are held in various parts of the islands under the direction of American teachers, and have given excellent results. During the short time in which the system has been in operation there has been a marked improvement, both in the application of the student and in the personnel of the teaching force.

TREE HOUSE NEAR ILAGAN, LUZON
From which children go to the public schools

Another important step in the development of the system of public instruction was the establishment and organization of provincial schools of secondary instruction, comparable in a general way to the American high school, under the provisions of the Act of March 7, 1902. In addition to the primary and secondary schools, there are also trade schools, agricultural schools, experimental and model farms and a nautical school for the purpose of training natives to navigate the vessels engaged in the extensive coastwise trade of the archipelago.

In the instruction of President McKinley to the Taft Commission occurs the following:

> In view of the great number of languages spoken by the different tribes, it is especially important to the prosperity of the islands that a common medium of communication may be established, and it is obviously desirable that this medium should be the English language. Especial attention should at once be given to afford full opportunity to all the people of the islands to acquire the use of the English language.

A fuller knowledge of the conditions of the Filipinos with respect to language fully justifies the wisdom of those instructions, and the decision formed in the beginning, to make English the language of the schools. The majority of the people are ignorant of Spanish, and those who profess to be able to use this language have but an imperfect command of it. The native languages are so numerous and so unlike, that no one of them can be employed as the common medium of communication. None of them have a literature to supplement the instruction received at school, and in but two of the eight dialects of the civilized tribes are newspapers published.

Elementary books might have been prepared in the various dialects, but after

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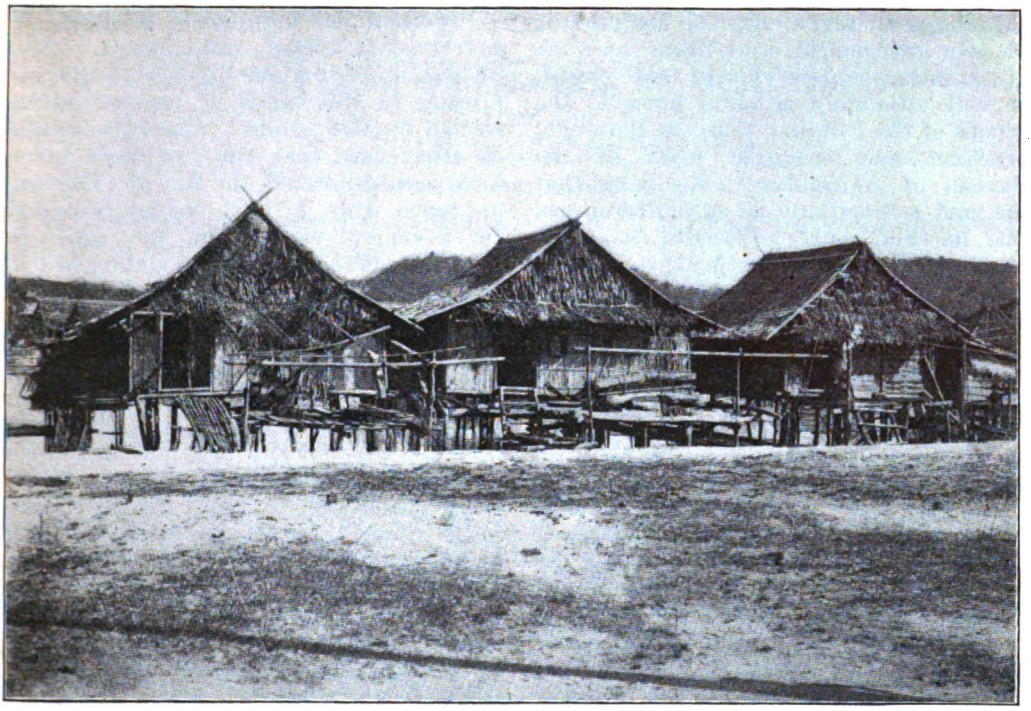

THE HOMES OF MORO PUPILS, JOLO

mastering these, the pupils would have found but a barren waste before them. There is but little advantage in learning to read in a language which offers nothing worth reading to those who have acquired the art. The boy who grows to manhood knowing only a language without a literature finds he has not the means of increasing his knowledge and readily falls back into the mental darkness of a semi-savage state.

As has been pointed out in the Philippine Commission's report, the boy who in his school days has learned the language of a civilized nation, has put himself *en rapport* with civilization. Aside from the practical circumstances of his life, it makes little difference whether he learns English, French, German or Spanish, but it makes a great deal of difference whether he learns French or Tagalog. The one makes him a citizen of the world, the other makes him a citizen of a province of the Philippine Islands.

When Spanish sovereignty was proclaimed over the entire archipelago, it was for the purpose of announcing to the world to keep hands off, rather than the statement of an accomplished fact. Sovereignty was at first limited by the range of the old match-locks. There was no community of interests between the different tribes. They had no common language, no common head, no confederacy. For the purposes of conquest this was an advantage, but it presented almost insuperable obstacles to the task of unifying the people after they became subject to Spain. For three centuries the Spanish rulers attempted to cultivate a feeling of nationality that was foreign to the native mind. The different tribes hated or mistrusted each other and desired nothing save their own savage independence. They have been, to a great extent, isolated throughout the centuries by barriers of mountain ranges or swift ocean channels, and the task before the present government is to weld these elements by means of highways, railroads, a school system common to all and open for all, and allow time to perform its work under these new conditions. Peace has been restored. The boom of the cannon has given place to the thump of the pile-driver, and bridges to unite separated people are building in place of breastworks.

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Perhaps no single effort on the part of the new government, aside from the work of education, is deserving of more credit, or will ultimately redound more to the benefit of the Filipino, than the thorough, practical and scientific work of the Bureau of Agriculture. Realizing that the land is essentially an agricultural one, that its chief source of wealth lies in its fertile soil, effort is being made to instruct the people in modern practical farming. The soil has been studied, instruction is given in the best methods of cultivation, seeds have been distributed, farming implements have been introduced, and in every possible way the earth has been made to yield a greater increase at a less expenditure of manual labor.

At the same time, both the insular government and Congress are devising methods to keep the Philippines for the Filipinos. The forests are protected by legislation so that they shall never be destroyed, but prove a perpetual source of revenue to the islands. The public domain, open to settlement, can be taken up by individuals somewhat after the manner in vogue in the United States, but the holdings are limited to sixteen hectares (approximately forty acres). Corporations can not secure more than 1,024 hectares (approximately 2,500 acres) and the church or friars' lands, about which so much has been said, when acquired by the government, will be cut up into small holdings and sold preferably to the present tenants. The natives are urged to perfect titles to the lands they already possess, and regulations have been drafted to clear clouded titles and organize a complete system of record for all real estate.

The Philippines, notwithstanding their long tutelage under the crown of Spain, are still new. Government works have been almost entirely neglected, and there is a great lack of harbors, railways, roads and bridges. Immediate attention has been given to these matters, and heavy appropriations have been made to deepen harbors, construct highways, stimulate inter-island trade and, in short, open the entire territory to settlement. Careful study is being made for a general system of railways that will put all parts of Luzón in direct communication with the capital.

Provision has been made to make the government almost autonomous. Municipal and provincial governments are already in the hands of representatives elected by the people. When the results of the census that has just been taken have been published, the Act of Congress, approved July 1, 1902, makes provision for a general election for the choice of delegates to a popular assembly, which shall, when duly organized according to law, have all the legislative power now exercised by the Philippine Commission.

The American people who have been the master builders and government-makers of the world, and who have ever been the missionaries and not the misers of liberty, have not been recreant to the trust committed to their care. Nature never raised a barrier too high for them to surmount. They went through, around and over the great backbone of this continent and planted their banner, their churches, their schools and institutions at tide water on the Pacific. A galaxy of states sprang from the seed dropped by the campfires of pioneers and pathfinders. The present sons of worthy sires grasped the idea that the waves of the sea were more easily crossed than prairie billows, and onward the western course of colonization pursued its way, a surprise to those who heard the echoes of Dewey's guns, which were but the birth cries of another state. They have labored faithfully to do good to the people of the Philippines and guide them along the pathway that leads to self-government. If a just criticism can be made, it is that they have made too much haste in granting the full measure of responsibility to people who have had no experience in directing the affairs of state.

That the task is a difficult one, it is useless to deny, but when did the American people ever shrink from a task because it was hard? It rather stimulates effort and makes the prize the more to be desired. What the future may hold, no man can predict, but never having failed in any great undertaking, it is not too much to assume that the time will come when the Philippines will be one of the gems in Columbia's crown, shedding light over the downtrodden millions of the Orient and leading the race to a higher plane of thought, government and action.

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MR. CHAMBERLAIN'S SCHEME

BY

LUCIEN WOLF

"DIPLOMATICUS," OF THE "FORTNIGHTLY REVIEW"

IN an after-dinner speech last summer Mr. Chauncey Depew said that he felt more than ever at home in England since he found everybody talking of the tariff problem which absorbs so much of the thought and polemics of his own countrymen. It is, at first sight, not a little curious that the English people should be talking so exclusively of the tariff problem—that is of the comparative merits of free trade and protection—seeing that the proposals of Mr. Chamberlain, which have given rise to all this talk, are not primarily concerned with the tariff and have not been justified—on his part at least—by any anxiety as to the adequacy of our present fiscal system. How then has it come about that the whole country is divided into free trade and protectionist camps, and that on both sides politicians are buckling on their armor for a constitutional struggle which is to decide whether the great economic settlement of 1846 is or is not to be overthrown.

It does not require a very close scrutiny of Mr. Chamberlain's scheme to solve this enigma. What Mr. Chamberlain has proposed is a system of tariff preferences between the constituent states of the empire by which their respective products shall be exchanged on a basis of lower customs duties than are applied to the products of foreign countries. Now this is no new scheme. It is a return to the old colonial policy of reciprocal restrictions and preferences which, in the language of Adam Smith, was one of "the mean and malignant expedients of the mercantile system." You can not have it without a return to the mercantile system in some form and consequently before preferences can be reinaugurated some sort of protection must be reëstablished. This must be clear when we consider that preferences can not be given to the colonies or anybody else unless there is a tariff which affords room for them. Hence the first step in such a scheme must be to penalize the foreigner. This in itself need not involve a very comprehensive protectionist tariff; but, as Counsellor Pleydell said, when he kissed Julia Mannering, *"On n'arrête pas dans un si beau chemin!"* If you are going to penalize the foreigner for the benefit of the colonies you can not refuse to extend your penalties for the advantage of the home trader. Moreover these penalties must involve an increase in the cost of the goods on which they are imposed and for this a compensation must be found for the home consumer. The result is that everybody who has a sneaking kindness for protection, retaliation, bounties and the like has lately been emboldened to wag his tongue, and the orthodox free trader has on his part been provoked to a commensurate reciprocity. In this way a Babel of economic controversy has arisen and has almost drowned Mr. Chamberlain's original political scheme for unifying the empire by means of a corn duty.

Let us consider, in the first place, the grounds on which Mr. Chamberlain puts forward his scheme.

They are not a little startling. Ex-Secretary Olney, who was so severely taken to task by Lord Salisbury eight years ago for declaring in an official despatch that the relations of Great Britain with her colonies lacked permanency, has an ample avenger in Mr. Chamberlain to-day. What the Colonial Secretary says is, in effect, that there is no essential unity in the empire, that its tendency is toward disintegration and that "a system of preferential tariffs is the only system by which it can be kept together." In other words he declares that the whole of our present colonial system is a failure.

Before I inquire whether this contention is tenable it will be well to set out clearly what our present system is.

Until sixty years ago the old plantation conception of colonial policy, which looked to political coercion and common economic interests as essential conditions of imperial unity, was paramount in

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Great Britain as in every other European country. In its most oppressive form it had received a staggering blow from the American Revolution, but it had still struggled on in a more or less bedraggled state. Reliance upon political coercion had been somewhat shaken, but this had only strengthened the popular confidence in commercial ties. Tariff preferences to the colonies formed, of course, an important element in this policy and so highly was their unifying virtue rated that they were strengthened and multiplied even when the restrictions on the foreign trade of the colonies were being one by one removed. How they were ultimately discredited I shall have occasion to explain presently. Suffice it, for the moment, to say that they became so intolerable that, by the reforms of Earl Grey in 1846-49, they were completely swept away and in their place the foundation of the fiscal autonomy of the colonies was firmly laid.

There is a wide-spread idea that these reforms were a sort of "fluke" of the Little England disciples of the free traders who thought by their means to pave the way for the more rapid alienation of the colonies. This is a delusion. They were not even a necessary tariff consequence of the triumph of free trade, for at that time there was still room in the tariff for preferences, and both Sir Robert Peel and Mr. Gladstone were believers in their efficacy. Nor were they wholly dictated by the evils to which the old system had given rise. Still less were they actuated by Little England principles, although it is true that they were largely carried by Little England votes. The statesmen to whom they were due were themselves strong imperialists and they tried the new experiment—the substitution of a moral for a material idea in the construction of a great political organization—in the firm conviction that it would make for a permanently contented, patriotic and consequently united empire. This was the opinion of Huskisson, the pioneer of the "moral idea" system, and it was held with not less tenacity by Earl Grey himself. Huskisson was struck by the enormous progress made by the United States under independence. Bearing in mind that this progress was due less to political independence than to fiscal freedom, he asked why such freedom in the remaining British colonies should not be compatible with political unity.

It is true that Huskisson had chiefly in mind concessions to the colonies in the shape of the abrogation of commercial restrictions; but Earl Grey, to whom it fell to complete the edifice of commercial freedom by withdrawing the colonial preferences, was equally certain of the necessity of maintaining the empire and of the prospect of its endurance under the new conditions. Here is what he says on this subject in one of his letters to Lord John Russell:

> I consider it to be no less for the real and permanent interests of the colonies themselves than for the mother country that industry should cease to be diverted from its natural channels, and a useless burden to be imposed on the consumer by differential duties, levied for the purpose of favoring colonial produce in our market and our produce in the market of the colonies.

It is clear from the history of the present system that whether it is or is not a failure it was not framed without the fullest and most patriotic consideration of the consequences, and that it was only adopted when its authors were convinced that the moral forces making for imperial unity might be safely relied upon.

But has the system proven a failure? It is impossible to say what Mr. Chamberlain's private information on this point may be, but so far as the world knows all the evidence points triumphantly in the opposite direction. Certainly if Huskisson and Grey could come to life to-day they would be far from dissatisfied with their handiwork. Dissatisfied do I say? We have only to call to mind the parlous circumstances of the empire when Lord Durham wrote his famous report and Lord Grey carried through his reforms, to figure to ourselves their gratified stupefaction at what they could only regard as the miraculous fulfilment of their wildest dreams. And this fulfilment has come about in spite of a far more rigorous application of the spirit of their policy than they were themselves prepared for.

When Lord Grey abolished the Navigation Laws and the Tariff preferences and authorized the colonies to reduce or repeal by their own legislation duties imposed by imperial acts upon foreign goods imported from foreign countries, he did not intend to give to the colonies

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an unquestionable control over their fiscal policy. His idea was rather to endow them with the full benefits of the free trade which had been adopted by the mother country, but at the same time to bind them to it. It never entered into his Cobdenic mind that they could possibly think of returning to protection on their own account, and had this risk been suggested to him as well within the region of probabilities he would no doubt have revised his faith in the future of the empire. This thing, however, came to pass. Having obtained fiscal freedom the colonies claimed the right to use it as they might think fit. In 1856 the claim was admitted in the "Rules and Regulations for Her Majesty's Colonial Service," and in 1858 the imperial government reluctantly and, be it admitted, pessimistically, acquiesced in the Canadian protectionist tariff in which, for the first time, a dependency of the crown claimed to treat the parent state as a foreign country.

The example of Canada was quickly followed by the other self-governing colonies, and by a number of acts of Parliament and instructions to colonial governors, ranging from 1858 to 1895, all restrictions on the levying of differential duties by the colonies were removed. To-day the only restriction that remains —and it rests on tradition and precedent and not legal disability—is that the colonies are not permitted to discriminate in favor of foreign countries against the mother country or the sister colonies.

There were not wanting people in England who contentedly reported these concessions as so many nails in the coffin of empire. At that time the famous aphorism of Turgot that "Colonies are like fruits which only cling till they ripen" was paramount even in the colonial office. Those were the days of Mr. Cardwell, Lord Granville and Lord Derby when, as their Permanent Under Secretary wrote, "the function of the Colonial Office is to secure that our connection, while it lasts, shall be as profitable to both parties, and our separation, when it comes, as amicable as possible." Even at that time, however, there had already been several noteworthy indications of the growth of an imperial spirit in the colonies. One was the large subscription raised in Australia toward the Crimean War Fund for the widows and orphans of British soldiers. Another was the enthusiastic despatch of volunteers from both Canada and Australia to assist in the Egyptian campaign. It is curious to note that the impression made by these and similar patriotic demonstrations on Mr. Chamberlain at the time was the reverse of pessimistic. Here is the opinion he held in 1895:

> The British empire hangs together by a thread so slender that it may well seem that even a breath would sever it. . . . . But as the possibility of separation has become greater the desire for separation has become less. Our fellow-subjects see to what a great inheritance they have come by mere virtue of their citizenship; and they must feel that no separate existences, however splendid, could compare with that which they enjoy equally with ourselves as joint heirs of all the traditions of the past and as joint partners of all the influence, resources and power of the British empire.

If we compare this statement with the anticipations of Earl Grey already quoted, we shall see that it claims in terms a fulfilment of all the hopes of the creators of our new colonial system. We may take it then that up to 1895 that system had not failed.

That the tide of imperial patriotism did not slacken between 1895 and 1901 seems also abundantly clear. This is shown by the bellicose attitude of the colonies at the time of the German Emperor's telegram to President Kruger and by their offers of assistance when the Fashoda incident threatened to drag the empire into a European war. It was still more dramatically illustrated by their splendid action during the South African War when they made sacrifices which, on the basis of a comparison of population and financial resources, were equal to a contribution of 1,597,000 men and £88,-725,000 by the mother country. Here again Mr. Chamberlain had no misgiving as to the soundness of the imperial tie. Speaking on Dominion Day just two years ago he said:

> There have not been wanting sceptics who have disbelieved in what they call mere sentiment, who have thought that the chain which holds us together was so frail that it would not sustain the slightest strain. . . . . Those sceptics have shown a great want of imagination. The libel which unwittingly they have promulgated about their fellow subjects—that I hope now the events of the last two years have forever silenced. . . . . Here is Canada, here is our greatest colony, far removed from the sound of strife by thousands of miles, without any direct

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interest, and yet stirred in unison with us, because an imperial interest was endangered. She has sent us soldiers, unsurpassed in valor and efficiency, to stand shoulder to shoulder beside the army of Great Britain and beside the battalions of South Africa and of Australia. Thus the union of the empire has been sealed in blood. In the words, the eloquent words, of Sir Wilfrid Laurier, "No bond of union can be stronger than the bond created by common dangers faced in common."

Two years ago then there was still no sign of failure in our colonial system. On the contrary the bond of empire had been finally made fast by an historic "seal of blood." Now, however, we are suddenly told that the "seal of blood" has proved of a tenuous quality and that the bonds of union to which it was applied have turned out a delusion and a snare. Is it possible to believe this in the face of the history of the last half century and especially of the last decade? Does not all the evidence go to show that our new colonial system—the effort, as Lord Salisbury eloquently said, to secure "the triumph of a moral idea in the construction of a great political organization"—has been attended by a colossal success, a success not even inferior to the loftiness of its aims?

So much for the grounds of Mr. Chamberlain's new policy. Let us now glance at his remedy.

I will say nothing of the moral aspects of the bargain he proposes, which is practically a scheme for bribing the colonies into loyalty, except that I can imagine how trippingly the words "sceptic" and "libeller"—and probably "Little Englander" and "pro-Boer"—would have come from his tongue had anyone else suggested it. Nor will I consider it from the point of view of general economic experience and doctrine. The question, as I have already said, is not primarily economic but political. It is in essence a revival of the old imperial system which postulated mutual trading preferences as the basis of imperial unity and by the success or failure of that system it ought to be judged.

At first sight it must seem astounding that Mr. Chamberlain should go back to a policy which lost us the United States for the ingredients of a new prophylactic against imperial disintegration. In justice to him, however, it should be said that it is not precisely the old colonial scheme that he thinks of reviving. The virus is distinctly attenuated. It happens, however, that in the transformation of the old system the virus also became attenuated and hence it is not difficult to find a stage in its history with which Mr. Chamberlain's scheme may be fairly compared. That stage is indeed the most interesting of all, for it was the one which led to the disgusted abandonment of the whole system.

In 1846 very few of the old restrictions on colonial trading, which were designed to give a monopoly to the mother country, remained. They had been gradually modified for three reasons. In the first place British statesmen had learned the lesson of the American Revolution; in the second place the free markets of the United States, Brazil and Cuba, had profoundly modified the commercial conditions of the western hemisphere, and in the third place the relaxation of the restrictions had justified itself in the greatly increased purchasing power of the colonies. At the same time the fear of losing the colonies altogether had led the mother country to attach an increasing importance to the tariff preferences she herself granted, with the result that instead of a monopoly in favor of Great Britain there had come to be a balance of preference in favor of her dependencies. In 1840 there were no fewer than eighty-two differential duties in favor of colonial produce in the imperial tariff.

Now how did these preferences work? I will take the two most important, sugar and timber. In both these cases the duty on the foreign product was almost prohibitive, while that on the colonial product was comparatively insignificant. The results were exorbitantly high prices in the home market and great hardship to the British consumer. In 1842 unrefined West Indian sugar in England was more than double the price of Brazilian sugar in the world-market, being 36s 11d as against 18s 3d. Huskisson said in a speech in 1829 that he was not exaggerating when he stated that two-thirds of the consumers among the poorer classes drank their coffee without sugar. In 1840 the annual consumption of sugar per head of population was only fifteen pounds; whereas to-day it is eighty-five pounds.

The timber preference, which was a

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Canadian monopoly, worked just as oppressively. In this case high prices were aggravated by inferior quality, the Baltic timber, which was excluded, being more durable than the New Brunswick timber, which was encouraged. One of the results was that house rents in England were increased, owing partly to the dearness of timber and partly to the short lives of the houses in the construction of which the inferior colonial product largely entered. Another was that the "wooden ramparts of Old England" became more costly and less reliable. In 1821 it was stated before a committee of the House of Lords that on examining twenty-six frigates it had been found that those built of Canadian timber lasted only half as long as those made of European wood. In 1840 the committee on foreign imports found that, owing to the high price of timber in Great Britain, the ship-building trade was rapidly passing to the United States. These are typical instances of how the preferences worked in regard to the home consumer. I may, perhaps, be told that they prove nothing against Mr. Chamberlain's proposals because his preferences will be on a much smaller scale. But in that case the question is only one of a sum in proportion.

Another interesting point is the effect of these preferences on trade. Here the high money value of the preference is unquestionably a pertinent argument, for if a small preference on Canadian corn is to stimulate Canadian agriculture then certainly a high preference on West Indian sugar ought to have extended the cultivation of the sugar cane. As a matter of fact it did nothing of the kind. Relieved of competition the West Indian planter rested and was thankful. Not only did he not increase his production but he actually decreased it. Between 1831 and 1842 the imports of West Indian sugar fell from 4,103,746 cwts. to 2,508,910, although the population of England had meanwhile increased by over two millions. It was the same with West Indian, and afterward with East Indian, coffee, the production of which in spite of preferences fell even below the home demand. To meet the deficiency the importers hit upon the ingenious idea of buying highly tariffed foreign coffee and sending it to Cape Colony, whence it was reshipped to England as preferred Indian coffee. In the case of Canadian timber, the colonial production was certainly stimulated, but on an exceedingly wasteful scale and entirely at the expense of agriculture. Here, again, however, the supply was unequal to the demand and importers frequently shipped Baltic timber to New Brunswick, whence it was brought back to England as the genuine colonial product and admitted on the preference scale of duty.

The effects on the home trade are not less instructive. We are led to expect that under Mr. Chamberlain's scheme there will be a great expansion of our exports to the colonies; but there is no justification for this belief in the operation of the old system, although the preferences it conferred on the British manufacturer were far more substantial than any that the colonies propose to grant to us under the new. Indeed, between 1816 and 1849, while the general volume of our exports increased, our exports to British North America and the West Indies decreased from £7,016,410 to £4,307,776. The cost of the preferences to the English consumer was actually far more than the total value of the exports to the colonies. In 1840 it was calculated that had the United Kingdom made a present to the West Indies of all its exports to those colonies and had it at the same time been permitted to purchase its sugar in the world-market it would have been over £1,000,000 in pocket.

That under these circumstances the British public grumbled and that their grumble eventually swelled into a roar of indignation is not surprising. The commercial crisis of 1837-1839, with its accompaniments of bad harvests, crushing taxation, and rebellion in Canada brought matters to a crisis. The preferences had to be diminished in deference to the popular clamor and a few years later, as I have already stated, they were made to disappear altogether before a loftier, saner and, at the same time, a less burdensome scheme of empire.

The mischief wrought by the old system was, however, not interred with its bones. Mr. Chamberlain is fond of calling his opponents Little Englanders and our neo-protectionists are now following his example by declaring that the found-

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ers of free trade were for the most part of that denomination. I will not deny the unamiable impeachment. But what made them Little Englanders? It was not protection, for that might have well existed apart from colonial policy. It was the specialized form of protection so beloved of our latter-day Greater Englanders—the colonial preferences. Little Englandism was exclusively the creation of the preferential system. Proof of this abounds in the writings of men like MacCulloch, Cobden and Sir Henry Parnell. The burdens which the country had been made to bear in the name of imperial unity ended by disgusting the people with the colonies. They felt, not unreasonably, that the colonies were not worth the sacrifice, and although the statesmen who carried out their behests were really good imperialists and were convinced that the course they were taking would benefit the empire, it must be confessed that the bulk of their supporters did not care whether the abolition of preferences broke up the empire or not. And while preferences created the Little England school at home, it is not less important to notice that their abolition founded the "cut-the-painter" school in the colonies. Here is another warning for Mr. Chamberlain, unless he can guarantee that his scheme will answer all his hopes and that even then the people of this country will never change their minds. For some years after the legislation of 1846-49 the colonies were a prey to dangerous discontent. Valuable vested interests had suffered, and in consequence the colonists asked loudly what benefit they derived from the imperial connection. The West Indies protested and sulked. Canada went further. Among many ugly signs of disaffection at this time was an address signed by 325 merchants of Montreal, calling for annexation to the United States on the ground of "the most disastrous effect" which the "reversal of the ancient policy of Great Britain" had had upon Canada. Happily the native energy of the colonists asserted itself. They set to work to repair their losses and, with a more natural range of industry, and a larger market, they soon learned that the abolition of preferences was a blessing in disguise.

This, briefly, is the story of the old preferential system. I do not pretend that the tariff of seventy years ago is precisely on all fours with that which Mr. Chamberlain advocates, but in principle it is the same and in its consequences it will not be very dissimilar. In the first place we have the fact that as a mere bargain the new scheme is as glaringly inequitable as the old, inasmuch as the balance of preference must rest with the colonies. Will the British public to-day, any more than their grandfathers in 1840, be satisfied with a make-weight in the shape of an alleged guarantee of imperial solidarity? I doubt it. Then we have the certainty of dear bread and possibly dearer raw material. No jugglery with the tariff will bring an adequate compensation for these losses, which will be felt far more severely than the old sugar and timber preferences. On the contrary this very jugglery will unsettle our foreign commerce, if it does not permanently diminish our foreign exchanges and drive our *entrépot* trade to some other country. What will be the result? Another campaign for free trade, another outburst of Little Englandism, painful polemics with the colonies becoming always more envenomed through mutual interferences in each other's fiscal system, and finally another great quarrel from which the empire would not recover as it did half a century ago. To try to build again on the "moral idea" will then be impossible, for both moral and material bonds will have become equally discredited. From such a crisis separation would inevitably follow, not only because of the resentments of the moment but because all sense of freedom and stability would have gone from the imperial tie.

For these reasons I am convinced that Mr. Chamberlain's scheme is bad. All our experience, political and economic, condemns it. But it is not only bad, it is also gratuitous, for never was the unity of the empire stronger and never was the prosperity of the United Kingdom greater than to-day. And, finally, it is not only bad and gratuitous but it is, if I may venture on a harsh expression, something very like an insult to British patriotism and intelligence. The unity of the empire is surely not to be purchased with money and if it were it would just as surely not be worth purchasing.

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HOW A NEWSPAPER GETS ITS NEWS

BY

C. H. DENNIS

EDITORIAL STAFF, "CHICAGO DAILY NEWS"

ONE of the most striking things from the editor's point of view about the business of making a newspaper is the steady growth of the volume of news. Year by year there is a marked increase in the daily number of stories of interesting happenings which insist upon getting themselves published. The art of selection continually advances as the freshet of current news rises and widens before the eyes of the experienced men upon whose judgment depends the arrangement of the newspaper's contents. The daily or nightly struggle to find room for everything which must be printed and the sickening sacrifice of long columns of matter which the available space will not accommodate because other matter deemed of more value is given the preference are familiar to the working force of every large newspaper. The frequent query by members of the reading public as to how a newspaper "gets enough news to fill up" is always regarded as a huge joke by those who have experienced the bitterness of rejecting good copy merely to reduce the supply to the point where the space allotted to a presentation of the world's doings will contain it.

The volume of news grows larger all the time, because more things happen that merit the attention of intelligent readers as the nation advances in population, its culture broadens, its industries increase and its foreign interests grow. Thus it is that intelligent selection and skilful condensation now play a larger part in the creation of the daily newspaper than at any previous time.

But where does the news come from?

Local happenings are chronicled by a force of reporters under the direction of the city editor, who assigns each man of his staff to special duties. Intelligence from public offices and other places which regularly supply news of minor interest is usually collected by a central press association, its reports being sent in duplicate to all the city newspapers, thus simplifying the work of recording the activities of a community and cutting down its cost. Then there is the news which comes by telegraph. Whether it originates in Canton, Ohio, or Canton, China, the newspapers must have it if it is important. Here one meets with the work of the Associated Press, an organization owned and controlled by leading newspapers of the various cities and maintained for the sole purpose of collecting and disseminating news.

Every newspaper having an Associated Press franchise contributes its share toward the expense of employing agents in the various cities, leasing telegraph wires and paying telegraph and cable tolls, a fixed weekly charge being assessed against it. Every such newspaper places its proofs at the disposal of the local agent of the Associated Press, who selects from them what he thinks will be of interest elsewhere and sends it by telegraph to the nearest distributing center, usually New York or Chicago. While it has agents in smaller cities, it gets much of its news originating in those cities from the special dispatches sent to the newspapers in large centers of population. If, for example, a disastrous train wreck occurs somewhere in the West the Associated Press probably will receive an account of it from its local agent in that vicinity, but it also will have access to the special dispatches coming into the newspaper offices of Chicago, St. Louis and other cities. From these various sources it will be able to construct a full and satisfactory account to send out to its clients if by any chance its own report shall be meager or confused. Great care is taken, of course, never to furnish to any newspaper facts obtained from the office of another newspaper in the same city.

Many newspapers depend almost entirely on the Associated Press for all news except that which develops in the local

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field. Enterprising newspapers, however, receive large quantities of special telegraphic matter. Some have leased wires from Washington and New York. Theoretically, the San Francisco newspapers should be the best in the United States, since the difference in time in their favor enables them to know all that is published in the newspapers of New York, Chicago and other eastern cities in time to reproduce as much of it as they desire in their editions of the same day. The best newspapers take great pains to keep all important points near and far guarded by efficient correspondents who work under instructions sent them by mail and wire.

Sometimes two or more newspapers published in different parts of the country combine their efforts and trade news on a systematic basis. A New York newspaper, for example, will have a correspondent in the office of a Chicago newspaper, which in its turn will have a representative in the New York newspaper office. They will divide the United States between them and each will supply the other with news originating in the territory allotted to it. The Atlantic States, including Pennsylvania, and the southern states as far west as the Mississippi, may be the territory covered by the New York newspaper, its Chicago associate taking all the rest of the country as its share. The news editor of each newspaper daily combs the entire continent for suggestions, keeping a careful record of all conventions, important court trials and other gatherings which require watching, though many of them will be left to the Associated Press to cover. When special reports are wanted they are ordered from correspondents, the number of words required being specified. There is also the great mass of unexpected happenings to look after. Murders and accidents and mysterious disappearances, tornadoes and strikes, train robberies and elopements—the list is long indeed. These are commonly "queried" by correspondents who have the facts, and reports are ordered if wanted.

Whenever news develops anywhere the local correspondent ordinarily seizes upon it with avidity and makes the most of his opportunity to increase his monthly check for correspondence furnished. Since an important part of the income of the newspaper editor in a small town often is represented by payments received from newspapers in large cities for news telegraphed to them, it is easy to understand why the average correspondent's enthusiasm has to be restrained rather than aroused when a piece of news comes his way. Intelligent direction is likely to be his greatest need, since his sense of perspective often is faulty. Left to himself, he may telegraph a long report of an unimportant local convention or a brief and hysterical story of a great disaster, his adjectives being abundant in either case and his facts scanty. Yet there are many local correspondents who have both enterprise and sound judgment.

The antithesis of the satisfactory press representative is the correspondent who fabricates startling yarns about big hailstones, wild men seen in the woods, infants carried away by eagles, showers of frogs, and similar wonders. Thoughtless editors may permit him to send in drivel of this sort for a time, but his career will be brief at best. A few years ago the borders of Indian Territory were infested by correspondents who invented astonishing stories of happenings among the civilized tribes. A criminal prosecution begun some months ago by a Philadelphia newspaper against a western correspondent who had tricked it into publishing an injurious falsehood has served the valuable purpose of making such offenders more wary than formerly they were.

In the midst of the steady and continuous downpour of news sits the managing editor, endeavoring to develop more news. He wants the most interesting stories that can be secured at any cost of money and labor and he wants them in the greatest possible abundance and variety. He wants exclusive news in such profusion that his newspaper shall win distinction above all its rivals. He wants better reports of everything than his competitors get of anything. Furthermore, he desires to dispense with all unnecessary words in setting forth in the most attractive manner the facts that he deems worthy of publication. He is an artist in news and the extent of his artistic merit is measured by his success in instructing and entertaining the readers of his newspaper. He sends out staff correspondents to write up special matters, because he has

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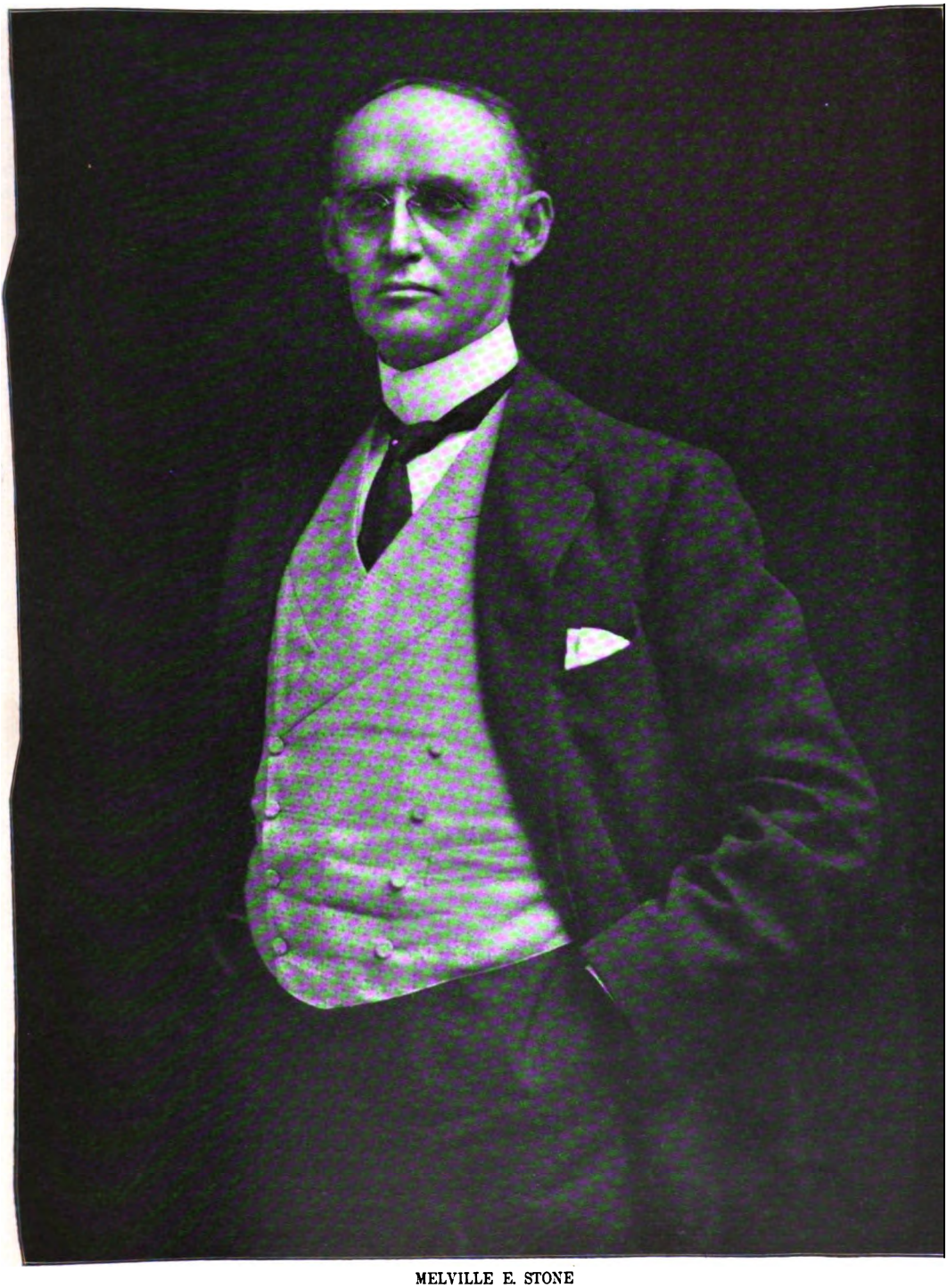

MELVILLE E. STONE
General Manager of the Associated Press

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confidence in their ability to grasp the important features and picture them forth in a pleasing way. If he has the true artistic sense, his flesh crawls at slovenly English, involved sentences and slang which is not quoted direct from the mouth of some person whose characteristics and mannerisms are being sketched to give local color to a story.

In the department of foreign news, two important developments have come recently. The completion of the Pacific cable from San Francisco to Manila and Hongkong has made it possible for the United States to get its news of the far East direct instead of through Europe. By reducing the cost of receiving such information when obtained at first hand, the new cable reduces the inducement to accept as sufficient for American needs news picked up in London that has been modified and given special interpretation by English correspondents for English readers. The other development is the establishment in European capitals of news bureaus manned by American correspondents under the control of the Associated Press. The Reuter news agency, which was established by its far-seeing founder half a century ago, its later growth keeping pace with the laying of land telegraphs and ocean cables, no longer is the principal source from which Americans draw their news of foreign happenings.

For many years the London *Times* has been a potent influence in forming public opinion, not only in Great Britain, but in the United States, in regard to foreign affairs. What was done in St. Petersburg or Vienna or Rome or Paris or Constantinople or Peking was reported and interpreted for English readers the world over by *Times* correspondents, who often were more powerful than the ambassadors of great nations, since they habitually made up the public's mind for it. Without seeking to detract in the slightest degree from the well-earned reputation for ability and truthfulness possessed by that newspaper's splendid corps of correspondents, one still may insist that American readers should take into account the natural British prejudices and point of view of those correspondents when weighing their conclusions. Other reliable and enterprising newspapers of London also have competent correspondents in foreign capitals, and their reports on men and policies have an effect upon the minds of American readers when cabled to the American press. Add to all these the ubiquitous correspondents of the Reuter agency and we have a mass of reports upon happenings in continental capitals and Asiatic countries which come by cable and are published on this side of the water, but which ignore the distinctive American view of every question. They naturally condemn any action of czar, kaiser or foreign prime minister that is inimical to British interests or ambitions, and they hail with satisfaction any political movement that tends to benefit Great Britain.

We Americans have shuddered too often in the past—the recent past as well as the past that is more remote—because somewhere upon the surface of the earth the British ox was in danger of being gored. Reading British reports almost exclusively, we have misjudged great nations and have been injuriously stuffed with British prejudices. While a better day is now dawning, it is difficult not to think that in our recent dealings with Russia in regard to Chinese matters British suspicions directed against its formidable rival and accepted even at Washington as facts because they appeared in the London *Times*, endangered the cordial relations which have always existed between this republic and the czar's government. When we in America report and interpret for ourselves the actions of the nations of continental Europe, we shall have taken a long stride in the direction of true independence in thought and diplomacy.

Under the efficient direction of Mr. Melville E. Stone, its general manager, the Associated Press is doing much to bring about this desirable emancipation. Some of the great newspapers of the country are assisting in the work by maintaining capable correspondents of their own in the principal European cities. The Spanish-American war gave the first great impetus to the movement to shake off the leading-strings of London. Then came the revolt in the Philippines, followed by the Boxer disturbances in China and the siege of the foreign residents of Peking. American newspapers thus were

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led to dispatch staff correspondents to remote quarters of the earth, who used the cables freely in telling of the marching and fighting. The first news of the destruction by Admiral Dewey of the Spanish fleet in Manila bay, as well as reports of later battles in the Philippines and in China, cost American newspapers for cable tolls a good many dollars a word, being sent under the "urgent" rate, or three times the ordinary commercial rate, thus taking precedence over even government dispatches. In the Philippines, carrier pigeons were employed by some of the American correspondents to convey dispatches from the battlefields to Manila. The first intelligence which was smuggled out of Peking by the two correspondents with the besieged members of the foreign legations—Doctor Morrison, of the London *Times*, and Doctor Coltman, of the Chicago *Record*—went through the enemy's lines and across the hostile country to Tientsin hidden under a handful of rice in the bowl of a Chinese beggar. The Orient only within the last few years has become a field for American newspaper enterprise.

The news of the whole world is of great importance to London all the time, for the Englishman is in direct touch through his investments or his government with every nation far and near. The growth of American trade and American territory and the widening field of American diplomacy makes American news far more valuable to the American newspaper of to-day than it was to the newspaper of ten or even five years ago. The construction of the isthmian canal and other developments which lie in the near future will enhance still further the importance of such news.

What conclusion shall be drawn as to the accuracy of news as it appears in the newspapers from day to day? In what has been written above in regard to foreign news the fact that the coloring which is given it consciously or unconsciously has an important effect upon the reader, has received attention. More than this, we all know that false reports are circulated by the public press, unintentionally for the most part. Perhaps the chief sources from which misinformation is drawn are the world's bourses. Stories concocted for the deliberate purpose of raising or lowering the price of stocks are rather common. Some of them find credence for several days before their cleverly woven meshes of falsehood are torn asunder. A rumor that this or that monarch has been killed or that war is threatened between two great nations usually serves to shock the sensitive money centers sufficiently to give stock gamblers a chance to make a profit. There have been venal correspondents who, for a price, have sent false reports. Their number in this country, let us hope, is small. Discovery of their offense would mean their dismissal in any case. Still, not a few partisan newspapers in political campaigns misrepresent the situation in the hope of benefiting their cause, though when such misrepresentation occurs, blindness to the facts rather than intentional falsehood usually is to blame.

The editor is very human. He should not make mistakes, but he does. He should not be misled; sometimes he can not help himself. He should not lie to his readers, but sometimes he does lie if he is unscrupulous. However, he may be unscrupulous and still tell the truth, for honesty pays and dishonesty is the refuge of the fool. If an editor is honest, he will print honest news at any cost, and if he is deceived, he will admit his error and do his best to guard against another lapse. Such an organization as the Associated Press, because it serves newspapers of every shade of opinion on public questions and because the members of its board of directors represent every section of the country and both political parties, could not safely color the news if it wished to do so, for it would be caught and its punishment by its own members would be severe.

A newspaper, like a man, has character. It reflects its manager in the way it handles its news. It ought to be held as scrupulously to account by its readers for what it says as they hold their business associates or other acquaintances. A newspaper is published either as a money-making enterprise or to serve some interest or other which its owner holds to be important. Those published for the former purpose are the more likely to be truthful and unprejudiced, for prosperity comes through winning and retaining the respect and confidence of the public.

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HUNTING THE ELEPHANT

BY

WILLIAM S. CHERRY

[William Stamps Cherry, of Chicago, the African explorer and adventurer, has spent eight years in the Congo basin, traveling in that region over twenty thousand miles. He put together the second steamer that sailed on the Congo. He was employed by the French government to operate with the Marchand expedition. For three years he lived alone among the natives. In his hunting expeditions he shot upward of a hundred elephants. His first collection of African curios was on exhibition in the Anthropological Building at the World's Fair, Chicago.—EDITORS.]

THE N'Gongu river is the place of all places for elephant hunting; so my Aszonda boy, Bangolyaw, told me, and what Bangolyaw said could be depended upon. He was part albino with red hair and a growth of the same colored wool all over his body. He was small and pleasant featured, there was no protruding chin or flat nose in his case, and some explorers might easily have classed him as a pigmy. Bangolyaw was the most trustworthy and intelligent elephant hunter I ever had. I taught him how to shoot, and he became a better shot than myself. He never let me get out of his sight when I was going to shoot an elephant, while all the other natives would run away and hide. I liked him because he was brave, and felt that in him I had a trusty companion.

On the evening before the hunt on the N'Gongu I overheard the men of Ratto asking him, "How does the white man kill the elephant alone in that way?" Bangolyaw then described the hunt we had had several days before. His picture was graphic. "The elephant was in a swampy forest where it seemed as if the trees were as old as the world. Their roots had filled the soft mucky earth. Nothing but an elephant could force its way through, and here he has tunneled his paths for thousands of years unmolested by man or beast."

These Africans know these places, and could appreciate the situation. If a hunter encountered an elephant in one of these places there was no chance of escape either to right or left. "We had tracked a fine animal here, and Demba Creecy was behind a big tree at the side of the path," continued Bangolyaw, "I was behind one not far off, Demba Creecy had just left me, I tried to hold him back. We were very close to the elephant but couldn't see him, Demba Creecy wasn't over that far from the elephant." Bangolyaw took some ten steps, and, getting behind a tree, peeped out at the men. "He waited, and waited, and waited. He was there until I held my breath so long that I thought I should die, all the time expecting the elephant to smell us, and there was no place to run. Demba Creecy couldn't see him at all. The elephant was standing there," Bangolyaw made a sound like a snore and lifting his foot brought it down like a cow stamping off the flies. "*Mbaty a picca mbonna ketta peppy*" (fear hadn't caught the elephant a little bit). Bangolyaw wiggled about, peering out into the bush as though trying to get sight of the elephant. Then a look of satisfaction came into his face as he lifted his hands to aim. "Then boom went the gun," imitating the firing of a gun. Falling on his knees with his elbows on the ground he showed how the elephant had fallen in his tracks, the joints of his legs giving way, and his tusks plowing the ground as they fall when shot through the brain.

All this was told with pantomime descriptions. The natives listened with wide-open eyes until it was finished, and then they turned instinctively and looked at me. I was sitting back of them in my long chair pretending to read, but in reality I had been listening with as great interest as the natives, and I had learned how to describe an elephant hunt. When the natives again turned to the story teller, Bangolyaw was measuring the tree hand over hand to a height above his head. "That was the length of the tusks." The listeners opened their eyes wider if possible, put their index fingers over their lips, pressed upon them for a second.

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then brought the upper teeth down over the lower lips. This was the native way of expressing surprise, admiration and approval.

On November 12, 1898, we were camped on the N'Gongu. I was followed there by two hundred men, women and children. Before nine o'clock in the morning I had killed an elephant; shot him in the hip, not breaking his leg, however. He had charged back at me. I jumped into the river and swam to the other side. The elephant lumbered in after me, lost his footing and was drowned in a stream of water thirty feet wide, and not over nine feet deep. He bellowed like a bull of Bashan and reared high out of the water before falling. The natives tied bush rope to him and rolled him close to shore. When they cut him up I found that the ball had entered the hip and had made its exit through the opposite shoulder. The heart shot, I have learned through experience, is the surest. In rainy, cloudy weather in the dense bush it is difficult to see the sights on the gun, let alone making anything like a sure shot at the smaller surface of the brain.

Next morning we were marching against a driving rain storm, wet to the skin. The blacks bent over with their arms close to their bodies, their hands folded across their abdomens, and their teeth chattering like rattle boxes. I was thinking of the hard luck we had had, following a big bull all forenoon, only to have him escape into a swamp after wounding him. Now we were at the N'Gongu again, miles below camp, and we had to cross over to get back, or else round a great bend in the river which would take hours. On our side of the swollen river was a vast grass plain, with here and there a clump of timber. On the other side was a dense forest. As I stood dreading the struggle of crossing, Bangolyaw touched me and pointed up stream. There by the river bank, with his head in a clump of bush, was a big elephant picking away at the leaves and seemingly enjoying his shower bath.

When I was within thirty yards of him I took aim, but the pouring rain spattered on my gun barrel, making it difficult to see the sights. I fired; he staggered but kept his feet and dragged himself into the bush. I could see a white tusk, and

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aimed at the place where I knew the head should be. He reared, almost turning a back somersault into the river. But somehow, cat-like, he landed on his feet in the water, and started down along the bank, which was almost on a level with his back. As he came near me I fired so close to his head that the powder must have burnt him. He turned, and reaching the opposite bank began scratching away at its slippery sides with his legs all spraddled out, like a big dog trying to climb a picket fence. Bangolyaw and the other men banged away at him while I was trying to get a broken shell out of my gun. Swimming a river with a twenty-pound gun and clothes on would be an impossibility under ordinary circumstances, but with the excitement, and the help of a swift current, I got across with only a few gulps of water in the transit.

We were soon after the wounded elephant, which by this time was reeling like a drunken man. There is nothing so perilous as following a wounded elephant in a bush like this, for should he charge there is not the shadow of a chance for escape. We had not gone very far when

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one of the men came bouncing back over the trail, his feet only touching the high places. We all turned and fled precipitately, only turning back after we had run quite a distance expecting to see an enraged animal rounding the curve in the trail. But we soon found that it was a false alarm. The excitement had so worked upon the man that he was ready to run at a shadow.

We soon found ourselves in a new herd, and, made reckless by my ill luck of the morning, I determined to try a fresh animal. In the dark bush I could barely discern a black mass; there was no distinguishing the head of the animal from the tail. Bangolyaw said the rump was toward us. We approached until he refused to go nearer. There were two trees just ahead of us, standing close together; I went to them thinking I could play hide and seek with him if he came at me. I could get no better shot from here, for even yet it was impossible to make out head or tail from what I could see. I ventured still closer. Bending low I saw two feet, and to my dismay they were his front feet. At last I had found his head. His trunk came down in front of his feet, and was outstretched in my direction.

He gave the angry cry of the elephant so close that I could feel the hot breath as it was blown from the proboscis; then he charged at me like a fiend incarnate. The moment I made the discovery that it was his front feet I was examining, I had instinctively taken several steps backward, turned and made a dash between the two trees just as he made a grab for me with his proboscis. I don't know whether he knocked me over or not, but I fell. The trees checked his progress for a moment only, but during that moment, by rolling and tumbling, I was out of sight behind the bushes a few yards distant. Fortunately my gun had gone off when I fell, and the smoke settled down obscuring everything. By the time it had cleared away the elephant had gone off on a false scent.

I came back to camp with a bruised body and no appetite for supper, thinking of how nearly that elephant came to killing me. I was sick and dispirited, and it was some time before I could hunt the elephant with any pleasure after this experience.

While on the Upper M'Bomu I discovered what I believe to be a dwarf species of elephant. I first noticed herds of some fifty or sixty elephants, and was struck by the fact that among the entire herd there was not a single large elephant. These animals were for the most part as big as the largest horse, with tracks eight and nine inches in diameter. These herds I encountered very frequently on the Shinko. I killed several males, and their tusks were not over two feet long, and had very short cavities, while those of the young elephant of the larger species are hollow nearly to the point. The ossification of the skull was complete. They are more like the Asiatic elephant in appearance, the hind legs being longer in proportion than the larger African species. The larger elephants are only found in herds of ten to twenty, the latter being a very large herd for them to find sufficient food in one place. The small species are more cunning and are difficult to approach.

Upon inquiry Raffai told me that there is a small elephant, and that it is as different from the large elephant as the pigmy red antelope and the pigmy bush antelope are different from the large species. The tusks of the female are cylindrical, while those of the male are conical. It is easy to distinguish them as the female has the smaller cavity. I have looked over many thousand small tusks caught on the Upper Mobangi which were supposed to belong to young elephants and females, and have arrived at the conclusion that they are mostly from this small species.

I always meant to know more about these small elephants, but on account of their being harder to stalk and not at all profitable, I hoped for a chance to solve the problem while hunting larger ivories. Although I had the skull of one, and have now several pairs of tusks showing the difference between the dwarf male elephant and those of the male baby elephant of the larger species, the question is not yet solved to my entire satisfaction.

One morning, early, my men awoke me with the news that elephants had been trumpeting for some time just below the camp. Following the sounds, we had been skirting a forest for several hundred yards when, rounding a point in the bush, we saw, in a large

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A FALLEN MONARCH

open space, three huge elephants. I crept along until I got within fifty yards of the elephants and was concealed by a large fallen tree, on which I could rest my gun. They were standing in a big hollow thirty or forty yards wide, with their broad sides toward me, their great ears flapping, digging clay with their tusks. Selecting one of the upturned chunks with his trunk, an elephant would swing it in order to get hold of it just right, like a boy rolling a marble on his knuckle, then throw it into his huge mouth and go to crunching. I stood there waiting, in hope they would turn and front me, when I could shoot between the eyes. But the way they were then standing no man ever had a better shot. I did not know it then, however. Suddenly they stopped eating, their ears at right angles, and with their trunks twisted and thrust out in the shape of a horizontal S, they gave a trumpet in high baritone and stampeded, just as my big setter bounced in among them, barking as though he had a cat treed on one of their backs. He was severely reprimanded for his audacity and sent to camp in disgrace, while I started after the elephants. I followed them nearly all day, but never succeeded in getting close enough to shoot, though I saw them half a dozen times.

Often the killing of an elephant is devoid of interest. A single ball well directed to the heart or brain will drop him; but you have to study carefully the anatomy of the beast before you can send the ball to the right spot. An elephant is as keen-scented as a pointer dog; it therefore goes without the saying that he is always to be approached with the face to the wind. When the wind blows your scent toward him it is all day with you. It is often necessary to cut a wide circle so as to get on his windward side before firing.

I recall an example of his acute scent. I had come into contact with an enormous

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elephant about eleven feet high at the shoulders; he had the points of several spears sticking in his body, and was not in an amiable mood. He had killed twenty-seven natives, and was thirsting for more blood. I was lying in wait for him behind a high-rooted mangrove tree. When he was fifty yards from me he began to be suspicious and kept snuffing the ground over which I had promenaded. Suddenly he extended his ears and lifted his trunk, describing with it part of a circle. Then he stood dead still and pointed his trunk as directly at me as my rifle was pointed at him. When I fired he gave his trunk a flirt and came at me like a locomotive; his big tusks bent down until they looked like a cow-catcher. I poured several shots into him, but he

SHOT THROUGH THE HEART

seemed to mind them no more than if I had been using a pop-gun. I had taken refuge between the big roots of the mangrove tree, but when he began to poke in his long proboscis I became convinced of the insecurity of my retreat. I wished that I could be transformed into a monkey or squirrel so that I could climb that tree fast enough. I saw that we could not live together on the same acre of ground at the same level. As it was I tore the skin off my breast in getting beyond the danger point. Fortunately for me he had got entangled for a time in the roots. When he saw me on my lofty perch he thought the matter over for a moment, and then went fuming into the bush. He had got enough and so had I. I noticed that his heavy tusks were black as ebony. They were so heavy that they had bent his head down out of its natural position, and he carried it so low that my first two shots, although well directed, had entered below the brain. That was the reason why he remained so long on his legs.

Once I climbed a tree so as to see over the tall grass, to get sight of an elephant which I had been pursuing. He was not far off and turned round and pointed his trunk directly at me, and came up within fifteen paces of me. I kept dead still, not moving a muscle until ready to fire. But this is true of nearly all wild animals. Antelopes especially will stand and look straight at you for a long time if you keep perfectly still, but if you stoop down or try to get behind a tree they are off in an instant.

When a large elephant falls down upon his side sometimes he can not get up again because of the position of his tusks, which may act as a yoke and keep him from raising his head from the ground; for, like some other animals, unless he can raise his head he can not get on his feet again. Then a number of his companions attracted by his cries will come to his rescue, and putting their tusks beneath him will lift him on his feet. I once saw a mother elephant, when pursued by the natives, lift her calf upon her tusks so that his feet just touched the ground as she pushed him ahead; and she made good time, too.

The elephants break their tusks frequently. Sometimes they do it in falling, and sometimes it is the result of disease. Think what a case of toothache a tusk must develop! I have seen, especially in the tusks of small elephants, diseased cavities, in which no more ivory was forming from the soft dentine. But the breaking of tusks is generally the result of battle. Old elephants become morose and pugnacious. They are very seldom with the herd. When two old elephants lock tusks then comes the tug of war. Seldom is the battle given up until one of the combatants is disabled or killed. I once killed a large bull elephant with the end of a tusk in his side.

The elephant uses his tusks skilfully, digging roots with them, and pinching the bark of trees. He is as handy with his tusks as with his trunk. He also makes good use of them as weapons of defense.

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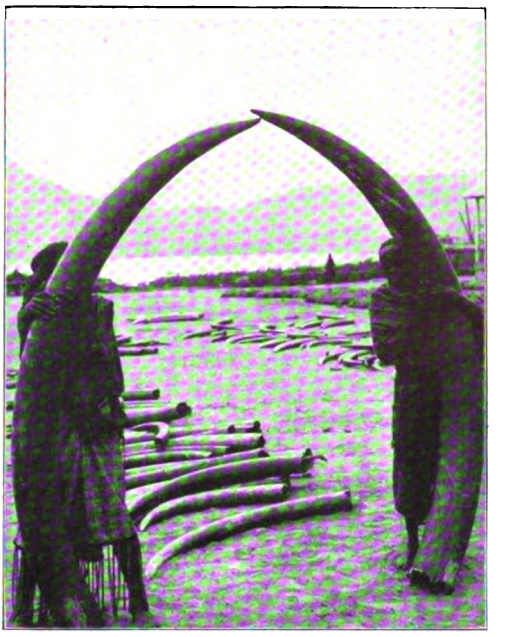
I knew well a native who had a brother killed by an elephant—a female with tusks not over eighteen inches long. The elephant held him on the ground with her trunk while she ran her tusks through him; doing it so quickly and deftly that there was not much time to suffer. The tusks were so small that he was not torn much, only punctured. The tusks act as a compound wedge and do their work effectively; but when the tusks are large the body is often torn to pieces.

I made a measurement of a number of elephants and found that their tusks did not average more than fourteen inches apart at the points, while they averaged three feet at the curves. I have collected quite a number of tusks of small elephants, some of them very curious in the way they are worn down almost to the gums. The international agreement forbidding tusks to be taken out of the country under twenty-five pounds in weight would be all right if it were limited to green ivory; but as much of the dead ivory is small it is a palpable injustice for the trader to forfeit all of this kind that may be below standard weight.

It is not a very easy matter to cut out a pair of tusks from the head of a large elephant. It takes a good axe worked by lusty arms for half a day. To reach the under tusk the entire head must be cut off. When you have the time at your disposal it is best to allow the tusks to remain in the head until the dentine decomposes, then a gas will form in the cavity causing an explosion which will send the tusks some distance from the head.

In hunting the elephant you soon come to discover that he has a definite range of territory to which he keeps all his life, unless disturbed and forced to move on to pastures new. Females are always to be found in herds. I have never found a female alone unless she had merely wandered from the herd for a short time in search of food. An elephant travels on an average thirty-five miles every twenty-four hours in search of food. The larger males never lie down, on account of their tusks. The females lie down occasionally and the young often. The elephant is very systematic in his habits. He begins to eat about four o'clock in the morning and continues till about light; then after resting he commences a shorter repast about three o'clock in the afternoon and has another rest at midnight.



IMMENSE TUSKS OF ONE OF CHERRY'S ELEPHANTS

In tracking an elephant you can judge of his size by the length of his stride, and the diameter of his footprints. The hind foot is much more oblong than the front foot and a different shape. But tracks differ. The feet of the elephants on the upper river differ somewhat in shape from those on the lower river; on the upper river they are long, and the toes come close together, on the lower river they are round, and concave at the instep.

It seems a cruel deed to kill such a noble animal as the elephant, but in his wild state he is a good deal of a pest. If he is not a man-eater he is a man-killer.

Elephants come in numbers into a village, trampling down the plantations and scattering the frightened people. The natives beat drums and blow horns to frighten them away, but they get used to these things and are not alarmed by them. Sometimes villages are abandoned because of the frequency and persistency of elephants' visits. The wild elephant stands in the way of man, and he must go or become his servant. The only thing that can prevent his extinction is his domestication.

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HOW A GREAT CITY IS FED

BY

EUGENE PARSONS

THE matter of feeding a great city is a complicated problem, or rather it involves several problems: the harvesting of grains and fruits, the raising of stock and poultry, the hunting of game, fishing, the transportation of food, its preservation, its distribution, and then the work of cooking and serving it in hotels, restaurants and homes. To do all these things requires the services of a vast host of men and women, laboring in one capacity or another. To describe the process of feeding a great city like Chicago is to tell how a considerable portion of its inhabitants are engaged, and the procuring of their food is the occupation of a large number of those who live in the country.

Some of these lines of employment are great industries, such as beef killing, pork packing, canning meat, etc. The retail meat markets scattered over Chicago number 1,578, including about one hundred and fifty "kosher" shops, and the number of butchers or retailers exceeds 6,000. Greater still are the operations of wholesale and retail grocers, who employ tens of thousands of clerks and drivers; the number of retail groceries is 4,532. There are more than 800 bakeries, and the number of bakers is about four thousand seven hundred. There are 300 delicatessen stores, and 2,446 confectioners. Of restaurant-keepers there are 1,200; the number of waiters is estimated at over twenty thousand. Of boarding-houses there are 535. Many of the 5,800 saloons in Chicago serve cooked meals or lunches with drinks, at tables or lunch-counters. The hotel-keepers are said to be nearly eight hundred, and of these about two hundred and ninety run a café or dining-room. Figures are lacking as to the exact number of cooks, waiters, kitchen help, etc. A single hotel company (that managing the Auditorium and Annex) employs a force of 500 waiters, kitchen helpers, etc. Of other individuals engaged in

PADANG, THE CHIEF COFFEE-SHIPPING PORT OF SUMATRA

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SOUTH WATER STREET, CHICAGO, HEADQUARTERS OF THE PRODUCE TRADE

supplying the public with food there are about one hundred and twenty fishermen, two hundred and fifty millers and over twenty-two hundred drivers of milk wagons. Apparently no count has been made of Italian fruit stores in Chicago, or of fruit stands at street corners. There must be thousands of them, and the itinerant Greeks with their banana gigs are legion.

Only a rough estimate can be given of the cost of the food consumed in a day or a year by the people of a great city. The number of persons at the noon meal in Chicago's 1,200 restaurants, 300 hotels and numerous saloons with café accommodations may be safely estimated at 200,000, or an average of one hundred at each. This is probably an underestimate. There is a yearly expenditure of $36,000,000 by patrons of hotels and restaurants. It is hard to ascertain the cost of living in families; at best no more than a rough calculation is possible. The daily expenditure for provisions for a family of five is probably as much as $1 on the average or 20 cents a head, making a total of $400,000 a day for the 2,000,000 who regularly get two or three meals at home. Here is a grand total of $180,000,000 for feeding Chicago's 2,200,000 people one year. The item for meat alone is $36,000,000, or $100,000 a day (for 1,000,000 pounds at 10 cents a pound). The item of bread (and its equivalents in rolls, doughnuts, cookies, etc.) is $18,000,000, or $50,000 a day (for 1,000,000 loaves at 5 cents each). As the number of persons accustomed to luxurious living is continually increasing, the yearly outlay for the city's food may be as much as $200,000,000, or about $90 per capita.

From the farms of the Mississippi Valley come the important staples, the breadstuffs that nourish the life of the western metropolis: 10,000,000 bushels of wheat from Minnesota, North Dakota, Missouri, Nebraska, Kansas, South Dakota, Ohio, Indiana and Illinois; oatmeal from oats grown in Illinois, Iowa, Wisconsin, Minnesota and Nebraska; maize from the seven states forming the "Great Corn

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Belt"—Illinois, Iowa, Missouri, Nebraska, Kansas, Indiana and Ohio. Buckwheat comes chiefly from New York and Pennsylvania; navy beans from Illinois and lima beans from California. Rice is imported from Burma, China and India, and some is brought from South Carolina, Texas and Louisiana.

In winter, vegetables are shipped from the South, or artificial cultures are obtained from hothouses. In summer, the truck farmers in the vicinity of Chicago—north, west and south—cater to the local demand. In the early morning the farmer may be seen driving into the city on a wagon loaded with cauliflower, beets, cabbages, tomatoes, melons, lettuce, cucumbers, string beans, etc., which he sells to grocers. The farmers also congregate at daybreak in South Water street and Haymarket Square, bringing farm produce for the wholesale dealers. In the morning hours South Water street is lined with the wagons of grocers getting supplies, and Haymarket Square is the rendezvous for peddlers, who load up their wagons with fruits and fresh vegetables, which they sell to their customers throughout the city. These two great thoroughfares contain literally acres of farm products, tropical fruits, apples, peaches, pork, beef, game, fish, poultry.

The chief source of meat supplies for the city is Packingtown, or the Stock Yards, so named because of the immense establishments handling live stock. Here is the greatest market in the country for cattle, sheep and hogs, which are shipped from the farms and ranches of the Mississippi Valley and from Texas. From these slaughter-houses comes ninety-five per cent of all the meat sold in Chicago. The delivery wagons from the Stock Yards load up with fresh beef, mutton and pork from the chillrooms where it is kept at an even temperature. By cold storage, meats are preserved indefinitely in good condition, and the delivery wagons of the packing firms visit every part of the city carrying beeves intended for hotels, restaurants and the retail markets. They also distribute vast quantities of ham,

A SAUSAGE FACTORY

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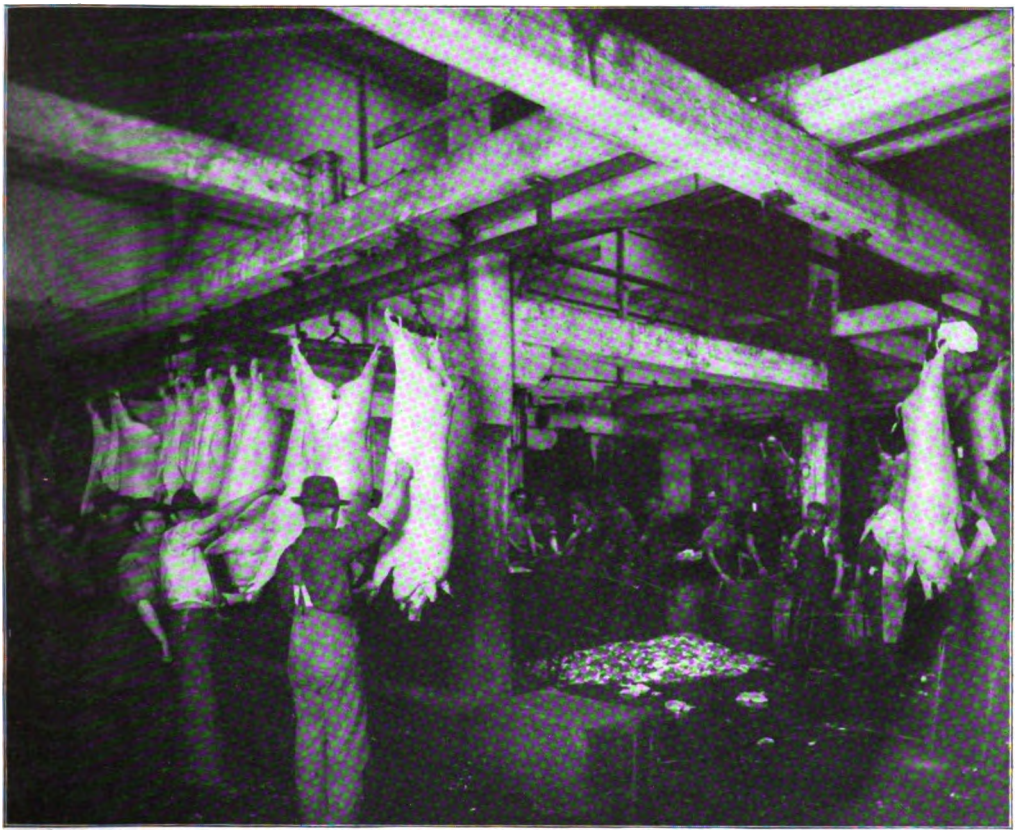

DRESSING HOGS FOR SHIPMENT

sausage, corned beef, dried beef, mince meat, boned turkey and other luncheon specialties. Of canned meats there are one hundred varieties: chicken, turkey, beef, ham, tongue, etc. Other products distributed from Packingtown are cans of Boston baked beans and beef extract for making soups and beef tea. The farmers are the producers of this food; the packers are the conservators and distributers. Americans are said to eat three pounds of meat a week.

Of game there is a great variety in the fall and winter: venison from the forests and mountains of New York and several northern states, also from Canada; bear, moose, antelope from the Northwest and the Rockies; ducks, geese, brants, turkeys, quail, prairie chickens, snipe and rabbits from various parts of the central, western and southern states. As game is getting scarce, it is becoming more and more of a luxury for the rich alone.

As wild game gradually disappears, the poultry-raising industry grows. There are chicken farms, duck farms, quail farms, etc., in Illinois, Wisconsin, Missouri and other western states, and upon these the city people depend for domestic fowls. The development of transportation facilities has greatly promoted poultry-raising by western farmers, especially the rearing of hens, ducks and turkeys for the Chicago market as well as for home consumption. Cold storage is an important factor in preserving perishable products, such as eggs, which are (with breakfast foods) gradually taking the place of meat in the diet of a large proportion of the city's population.

Except in very hot weather, fish is a staple article of food in the homes of rich and poor alike. Chicago's inhabitants consume annually $1,500,000 worth of fish, of which more than one-sixth is imported. A half-million besides is spent for oysters in the winter months, and there is a considerable demand for tur-

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HAYMARKET SQUARE, CHICAGO, THE PEDDLERS' MARKET

tles, frogs, lobsters, shrimps and crabs. Lake Michigan furnishes no inconsiderable quantity of carp and perch caught by fishermen at the pier; the value is unknown, because no track is kept of the sales.

Trout, pickerel, pike, whitefish and other kinds come from American brooks, rivers and lakes. Several species of bass, which rank among excellent food fishes, come from the Great Lakes and the streams of the Mississippi Valley, also from eastern rivers and the east coast of the United States. Bass is especially abundant in the Bay of Fundy, and is found on the Gulf coasts. Of preserved fishes the two most important in commerce are the cod and herring, found in great abundance in North Atlantic waters. In winter, great quantities of herrings are brought fresh from Newfoundland and the Great Lakes. Those from the New England coast are smoked or salted. The tarpon, by many considered the finest of game fishes, is caught on the coasts of Florida. The eel comes from Atlantic waters and some inland lakes. The common sturgeon, used extensively for caviar, comes from the Delaware river; the lake sturgeon from the Great Lakes and the Lake of the Woods. Sardines come from the California coast and from West Indian waters. Canned salmon, the most valuable fish in the world, comes from north Pacific rivers, Puget Sound and the coast north to Alaska. From the same waters come the delicious little smelts, which are highly prized for food. Mackerel are brought from the north Atlantic, great catches being landed at Boston and Gloucester, whence they are shipped, fresh and salted, to the West. Muskellunge, which is a great game fish and highly valued for food, comes from Lake Michigan and other northern lakes. Oysters, the most important of shellfish, are transported alive in the shell from Baltimore to Chicago. Green turtles are caught in West Indian and Gulf waters, terrapin off the coasts of Virginia and Maryland, lobsters in the Atlantic north of Delaware and crabs in Chesapeake Bay. Of preserved fishes many varieties, crabs, anchovies, sardines, etc., are imported from Europe.

Great quantities of dairy products—cheese, butter and milk—are consumed by the people of Chicago, the chief sources of supply being the northwest states. The finest quality of cheese and butter is furnished by dairies in Illinois, Iowa and Wisconsin. The task of supplying the public with cheese and butter is mostly in the hands of the retail grocers.

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Milk is shipped daily to the city in refrigerator cars, and extra pains are taken to have it fresh and pure. It is sold at 1,500 depots in Chicago and is distributed to all parts of the city by milk wagons numbering between twenty-two hundred and twenty-three hundred.

Of table beverages, coffee leads with Americans, who consume twelve pounds a year per capita (915,000,000 pounds, valued at $59,200,749). It is imported from Brazil, Central America, the West Indies and the East Indies. While Java coffee is the most famous in the world, the best coffee comes, not from that island, but from the neighboring island of Sumatra. The Mandheling coffee in Sumatra is the choicest, while next in favor are the products of the districts of Ayer Bangies, Ancola and Padang. Americans consume 108,574,905 pounds of tea, valued at $15,659,229, or about a pound and a half a year per capita. It comes for the most part from China and Japan. There is a growing demand for cocoa, which is shipped from the West Indies, Brazil and other countries of South America. The imports of cocoa and chocolate by lake at Chicago amount to about $100,000 a year.

Of fruits, apples hold deservedly the first place, the best Jonathans coming from Illinois and Missouri. Peaches come by boat from Michigan and by rail from Maryland, Georgia and California. Apricots flourish in California, whence hundreds of carloads are shipped fresh, and great quantities are dried and canned for the eastern market. Pears and plums grown in Michigan, Illinois and California supply the Chicago demand. Cherries come from Michigan and California, blackberries and strawberries from the central and southern states, cranberries from Wisconsin, grapes from Michigan, Ohio, Pennsylvania and New York. Red currants are shipped from New York and Zante currants from Greece. The best prunes are grown in California, and those imported from France rank next in favor. While considerable quantities of oranges are imported from Italy and the West

HOW THEY HAUL COFFEE TO MARKET IN THE EAST INDIES

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A BANANA ORCHARD

Indies, the Chicago trade is supplied chiefly by the crops from Florida and California. As the raisin industry of California has developed, the demand for raisins from the Mediterranean regions has fallen off. Although the Smyrna fig is superior to all others, the cheaper California figs are extensively sold. California lemons compete in the market with imported fruit from Italy.

Nuts are growing in favor as an article of diet, the favorites being almonds from Spain and Georgia, hickory nuts from the central states, English walnuts from Italy and California, peanuts from Virginia, pecans from Texas, filberts from Sicily and Spain, etc.

Of relishes and delicacies there are many that have come into vogue, especially among the foreigners, who have brought their European tastes with them for chow chow, olives, preserved fruits, macaroni, garlic, Swiss cheese, plum pudding, etc. To this list may be added spices from the East and West Indies.

ONE OF THE ITALIAN FRUIT STORES

An enormous quantity of cane sugar is shipped from Cuba, Louisiana and Mexico. Beet sugar is from California, Washington, Oregon, Utah, New York, Ohio, Michigan, Wisconsin, Kansas and Nebraska. The annual consumption of sugar per capita is fifty-six pounds, for the most part cane sugar.

Of bread, the "staff of life," there are no less than thirty-eight varieties, including different kinds of rolls and crackers. It is estimated that each individual consumes in a year one barrel of flour (about 225 pound loaves), and of this probably one-fourth goes into rolls and doughnuts. The total number of pound loaves eaten by Chicago's population in one day must be fully 1,000,000. Pastry is a popular article of diet with Americans, and the number of pies eaten by Chicagoans in a day exceeds 200,000, of which from twenty-five to fifty per cent are apple pies. One large pie factory, which has a capacity of 25,000 pies daily, requires 700 barrels of flour a month and one hundred barrels of sugar.

CUTTING SUGAR CANE

Space is lacking to describe in detail the work of the confectioners, who make tons upon tons of candies and bon-bons; of the caterers who furnish refreshments at innumerable social gatherings, and of the hotels and restaurants which feed hundreds of thousands daily.

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SHALL WE HAVE PUBLIC OWNERSHIP OR PUBLIC CONTROL?

BY

RICHARD T. ELY

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MONOPOLY has ever been regarded by Americans as something "contrary to the genius of a free people." This is an expression which is found repeatedly in our earliest state constitutions, and the recent high tide of feeling against monopoly indicates no new national sentiment. So long as there has been an American nation that nation has regarded monopoly as something odious. The fact that monopoly is more discussed now than it has been before at any time within the memory of living men indicates simply a change in industrial conditions which have made the menace of monopoly in public opinion a more serious problem than it has ever been before.

What is the underlying reason of the deep-seated opposition to monopoly in our country? It is precisely this: that it shuts the door of free and equal opportunity. Monopoly means exclusive privilege, whereas America has been the land of opportunity for all. There is nothing more fundamental in American history than the sentiment in the heart of American people that every man shall have his fair chance. This expression, "fair chance," may seem to lack scientific precision, and so it does. The popular conception of a fair chance is something which undergoes perpetual change. The idea is a growing one, and it has been and is still a mighty national force. It is not possible to understand American history unless one clearly grasps this fact. The goal toward which we have been moving, and toward which we shall continue to move indefinitely, is equality of opportunity; a goal we shall never reach, because there are many forces and institutions which limit this movement, and very properly so. But we can move toward a goal continuously without reaching it. America believes in the policy of the "open door," to use a phrase of international politics, or, to use another expression, America is determined not only to keep open a wide avenue to success, but to broaden this avenue and to remove obstacles from it. This explains our educational history as well as our economic policy.

These preliminary observations bring clearly before us the significance of the monopoly problem in its various forms at the present time. It is our purpose in this article to consider the only two methods of dealing with the so-called public utilities. This expression, "public utilities," is a somewhat loose phrase, but it generally signifies the chief economic agencies of transportation and communication, local and national; in other words, steam railways, telegraph and telephone lines, street car lines, and also lighting works, particularly gas and electricity. The same principles which are involved in the discussion of these enterprises control also many other monopolistic pursuits. When we speak about monopolies at the present time, we think chiefly about these businesses, and also about certain great trusts intimately connected with them. These are new kinds of business, and it is on account of the changes brought to us by industrial evolution, as seen in these businesses, that we hear so much more about monopoly now than formerly.

The problem presented by monopolistic businesses is in its essence a very simple one, and may be stated in a few words. Ordinary private businesses are made to conform to public policy by the force of competition. This is the general rule. Competition is a stimulus to those who are in competitive pursuits and incites them to activity in the service of society by an appeal to their own self-interest. Those who are not alert and energetic fall behind in the race of competition. The public,

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regarded as purchasers of commodities and services, are protected by the choice which they have among competitors. Competition, where it does its perfect work, makes the market price the minimum price and secures for a given return the largest amount of social service from those engaged in various efforts to gain a livelihood. If I offer more than any one else to you for a given return, I perform a greater service. It is when thus viewed that competition becomes, to use the expression of Professor J. B. Clark, "a game of give and not a game of get."

Naturally there are many exceptions to this general rule of the beneficent action of competition, and competition consequently requires regulation at very many points. There has, however, been a tendency in recent years, even on the part of economists, to overlook the beneficent effects of competition and the extent to which it does as a matter of fact render individual and social interests harmonious. Exaggerated presentations of the beneficence of competition and particularly the extreme advocacy of *laissez faire* have led to a reaction which in some respects has gone too far.

The precise problem in the case of monopolistic businesses, or businesses in which competition works only very sluggishly and inadequately, is to replace the force of competition by something else, and that something else can only be the control of society exercised directly and immediately, instead of indirectly and mediately, by such a force as competition. Monopoly means unified control, and control on the part of a body of men who act as one. Because they can thus act they are able to raise the price beyond competitive price, and they are able to force the public to accept services and goods of inferior quality. The street car lines of any great American city afford an illustration. Every dweller in a great city has an opportunity for himself daily to test the correctness of this assertion. It is inconceivable that the street car companies would subject their patrons to such indecent packing together and other forms of discomfort if competition in urban transportation were as sharp as it is among retail merchants. Is it conceivable that if competition worked as freely among those who provide urban transportation as it does among the farmers, street car franchises in themselves should be worth millions upon millions of dollars in addition to the value of all tangible property? The advantage which monopoly confers upon monopolists and the disadvantage which it confers upon users of services and commodities furnished by the monopolists are matters of familiar daily observation.

Starting out with the proposition that monopoly needs control, a proposition which has been recognized by jurisprudence for centuries, we have to ask ourselves how is this social control to be exercised. There are just two ways: one way is by public ownership. Property means the exclusive right of control. That is the very nature and essence of property. We have two forms of property: private and public. Where we have public property, public control springs naturally and spontaneously from the very institution of property itself. If the postoffice, a public institution, is not managed in the general interest, but is managed in the interest of private individuals, the management is mismanagement and is criminal, and those who are responsible for this criminal mismanagement are liable to severe punishment. It suggests itself, then, as a natural means of solution of the monopoly problem, to make all monopolistic businesses public businesses in order to secure a management which is in harmony with the interests of society.

But the monopoly problem can not be solved by any simple formula. It is not by any means an easy thing to transfer all the railways, national and local, all the lighting plants, all the telegraph and telephone lines, from private ownership and operation to public ownership and operation. We have then to consider the other one of our alternatives, and that is public control of owners of private property engaged in monopolistic businesses. We must have either this public control of private property or public ownership. This is accepted by all competent thinkers, and would seem to be indisputable.

The difficulties in the way of public ownership and management of industries are apparent and familiar. The nature of the problem is this: the organization and efficient management of great armies of men without injurious political conse-

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quences. The problem is precisely that of the civil service. How can we, in the case of public business, secure the best possible public servants, how can we organize them in the most effective manner, and how can we prevent an injurious intrusion of partisan politics into the public service? When we ask these questions all the abuses of spoils politics come to our mind. The problem which is here brought before us is by no means one easy of solution, and it is folly to view lightly the difficulties which accompany public ownership.

On the other hand, we have in experience much to encourage us when we contemplate the actual extension of the industrial sphere of government. We have our postoffice scandals from time to time, and we have other discouraging disclosures of official corruption. On the whole, however, during the past century we have witnessed in the various civilized countries of the world a most remarkable extension of the functions of government, and a coincident improvement of government both in efficiency and purity. The fact that the two have gone together does not establish necessarily a causal relation, but a closer and more detailed examination does reveal that some extensions of government make for purity and efficiency. Doubtless it would not be disputed by many that when France abolished the system of farming out the taxes to private contractors and substituted the direct management and collection of taxes, a great step forward was taken which not only relieved the people of previous burdens, but which operated to improve the general character of the public service.

We hear much about the failure of public ownership, but it is a curious psychological phenomenon that people do not ask the question: Have we had success in the one alternative, namely, the social control of private owners of property who are engaged in the kinds of business under consideration? Have we succeeded in controlling satisfactorily our great national highways, our street car lines, our gas works and electric lighting plants? To ask the question is to answer it. We may have made progress, and probably we are still making progress in public control, but on the whole our efforts certainly at first present the appearance of continuous failure. The chief agency of control which we exercise over the railways is the Interstate Commerce Commission. When this commission was organized, with Judge Cooley as chairman, in 1887, the hope was general that we had secured an efficient means of regulation. At the present time the members of this commission themselves speak of their work in such a way as to convey the impression that this agency of control is altogether inadequate. I think it is well known that Judge Cooley retired from the commission, after a service of four years, disappointed by the failure to secure satisfactory results. The late President C. K. Adams, of the University of Wisconsin, told me that his former colleague, Judge Cooley, made a sacrifice in taking the chairmanship, but made it in the hope that he could accomplish an important public service; he found that he had made a mistake and left the work of the commission disappointed on account of the small results achieved. As both these men have now passed over to the great majority, there is no reason why this personal communication should not be made public. Every large city in the United States and many small cities show the failure of public control.

But what are the prospects of a change? We have not had thoroughly satisfactory results either under public ownership or public control. Along which line are we likely to accomplish most for the future? It is important perhaps to call attention to some difficulties in the way of control. It is noticed that we must have public control in any case, but we use here public control in the technical and limited sense to mean public control of private property and of persons who receive their appointments as managers of business in accordance with the principles of private property. We have public control springing, as we have seen, from the very nature of public property, but when we attempt to exercise public control over private property we are attempting to combine two things which are by their very nature antagonistic. Property means the right of exclusive control. Those who manage private property must manage it with a view to its earnings. When they are managing the property of others they are bound to do this in order to be faithful to their

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trust, just as those who manage public property are bound to manage it in the public interest in order to be faithful to their trust. Where we have public control the public steps in, however, by means of agents and prescribes at points a different management of private property from that which the managers desire. The result is a conflict of interests, and this manifests itself injuriously in many different ways. The first and most important way in which it manifests itself is in politics. It follows necessarily from the principles of human nature that those whom it is attempted to control, feeling themselves aggrieved, seek to escape this control, and the easiest way to accomplish this end is to secure control of politics, electing men who represent the views of private property owners to legislative positions, and where possible securing their appointment in administrative positions.

When we look into the future do we find encouragement in the contemplation of the forces which have been set at work by the attempt to exercise public control over private property and the managers of private property? I have before me a letter from one of the most prominent lawyers of the country, and also a certificate of organization of the Public Service Corporation of New Jersey. This lawyer calls attention to the fact that "the trend of quasi-public corporations, trolley companies, gas, electric light and other corporations having power of eminent domain, seems to be to withdraw from the salutary restrictions thrown about such corporations, this withdrawal by means of a holding company controlling these public franchise corporations." The charter of this Public Service Corporation goes a step further in the indicated direction. It is not merely a holding company, but a maintaining and operating company, the operation and maintaining being carried on by means of a company which is not subject to the restraints and restrictions imposed upon public franchise corporations. The charter of this company empowers it to facilitate the organization of subsidiary companies, to acquire the property and franchises of any corporation or corporations, and "to perform the obligations of any such lease or other instrument with reference to the maintenance, operation, extension and improvement of the leased property." Furthermore, no stockholder has any right to inspect any book or account or document of the company, "except in his capacity as a stockholder, and then only with respect to his interests as a stockholder."

Without going further into this charter it may be said that the whole purpose of it is evidently that which has been indicated, namely, to escape control. This corporation operates only in New Jersey and thus attempts to escape any hostile action on the part of the federal government, but similar corporations may be organized elsewhere. Let us suppose that in some states such corporations are held to be illegal, or that hereafter laws are passed preventing their organization. The ingenuity of man will devise some other method of escaping this public control. Every day sees some new device which has this express purpose in view.

The psychological results can not fail to be most unfortunate. We find arrayed against the public interest a powerful class in the community; in fact, the most powerful and capable class of business men. If they succeed in controlling organized government they must learn to despise it. The results, however, of success in an attempt to escape control are most lucrative and enable private corporations to tempt some of our ablest men to leave the public service for private employment. It becomes evident that there is a greater similarity between the problems which have to be solved in the case of public control and public ownership than at first appears. There is danger of debasement of government and corruption of officials whichever alternative is chosen. The development of industrial civilization has brought us immensely difficult problems which demand a cultivation of individual character and national righteousness as a condition of social progress. It would seem the part of wisdom to decide between public ownership and public control in accordance with the nature of the case, and then attempt those measures which promise most for purity and efficiency both of private and public business.

What are the prospects for that improvement in the civil service which is

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demanded by existing conditions? When I speak about the civil service I have two very different pictures in my mind. I think of the employes in the city hall in Berlin, and of the employes in the city hall in New York city. When I was a student in Berlin, I was asked by Hon. Andrew D. White, then our minister to Germany for the first time, to make a study of the government of the city of Berlin. In order to make my investigations I had occasion to go to the city hall and consult the officials. I found them scholars and gentlemen, thoroughly familiar with all the details of their business and evidently interested in it. I was given a budget of the city of Berlin which was a model. At that time the city council of Berlin was a body of high-minded men, among whom one of the most celebrated scientists of the world occupied a dominant position; I mean Dr. Rudolf Virchow. It was largely through his influence that improved sanitary conditions had been introduced into Berlin, saving the lives of many thousands annually. Soon after my return to this country I had occasion to go to the city hall of New York, and was almost overcome by a sense of humiliation at the contrast, seeing corrupt-looking men sitting on desks and chewing tobacco, men evidently not at all versed in the science of municipal government and caring nothing about it. When I was a member of the Maryland Tax Commission, I was astonished to find how little knowledge tax officials had of the nature of the duties in which they were engaged.

But the mention of taxation brings to my mind still another picture. There has undoubtedly been an improvement during the past twenty years in this country. I think of the Wisconsin Tax Commission, composed of trained men who are as much interested in their work as are any men with whom I am acquainted in the railway service, and who devote to their duties their best powers. I think also about our state universities described so recently in the columns of *Christendom* by President Northrop, where one finds men working just as diligently, just as zealously in the public service, as do those men who are employed in the universities which are private foundations. In the civil service everything depends upon the kind of men who are placed in control. The whole problem, after all, is largely one of social psychology. If the people come to see that the office exists, not for the officeholder, but for the sake of the people as a whole, and that trained experts are needed in private as well as in public business, and that it is the duty as well as the interest of the people to afford such conditions of service as to attract the most capable men, we shall be on our way to the solution of the problem.

These considerations suggest also that one may consistently oppose public ownership at a particular time and place, not because the alternative, public control, is likely to be satisfactory, but because the psychological moment for passing over to public ownership has not arrived.

It need scarcely be said that the question which we are considering is not at all a question of socialism, which means the abolition of private ownership in land and capital. The question at present under consideration is not the abolition of private ownership, but the line of demarcation between private and public ownership, and also between private and public business.

In conclusion, just a word may be said about the postal scandals which are attracting so much attention and causing so much anxiety and distress to right-minded Americans. These postal scandals must be considered in their wider connections. The corruption which has been revealed in the postoffice is not something isolated, but it is part of a larger whole. It reveals a wrong view of office as an opportunity for the officeholder instead of an opportunity for social service. It reveals the fact that we have looked upon government too much as merely a business concern, and have overlooked the further fact that it should be an expression of the higher life of the nation.

Finally, in considering the pros and cons of public ownership and public control, the careful observer and critical thinker will not fail to notice that we instinctively establish a higher standard for public business than we do for private business. The man who is engaged in a private manufacturing business may interest others in his pecuniary success by methods which would be criminal if he were engaged in the public service.

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CHARACTER SKETCHES OF CITIES
DENVER

BY

ELTWEED POMEROY

MOST cities measure their history by centuries; Denver's growth has been compressed into decades. Still lacking five years of half a century, its start was that of hundreds of western mining camps. In 1859 it was a huddled group of prairie schooners, dug-outs, tents and shacks, inhabited by miners, seven hundred miles from the nearest railway station. So near to-day in time is it that a man of threescore could easily have been the first arrival and have remembered it. But these few decades have been more crowded with events and growth than a cycle of Cathay. Denver has lived, and to-day she has as distinctive a character as her older, in years, eastern sisters.

But how and why has this smear of miners' cabins come to be the mountain metropolis? In 1805, Major Pike, from whom Pike's Peak was named, said that the Missouri river would end civilization. In 1820, Major Long, whose name is attached to Long's Peak, corroborated Major Pike's report. Even as late as 1868, General Hazen, in an article in *The North American Review*, said we had reached the western limit of our agricultural resources and predicted nothing but mining interests at Denver and beyond. To-day Colorado, with its twenty-five thousand miles of irrigating canals—enough to circle the globe—ships grain and the choicest fruits east. Denver is a great manufacturing city whose manufactured products in 1900 were $41,369,000, while the products of the mines of the whole state were only $43,920,000 in 1902. Learn the cause of this growth in direct opposition to the words of the official prophets and you will understand a large part of Denver's character.

DENVER IN 1864

More than ten years ago Hon. William Orton, ex-president of the Western Union Telegraph Company, on return from a

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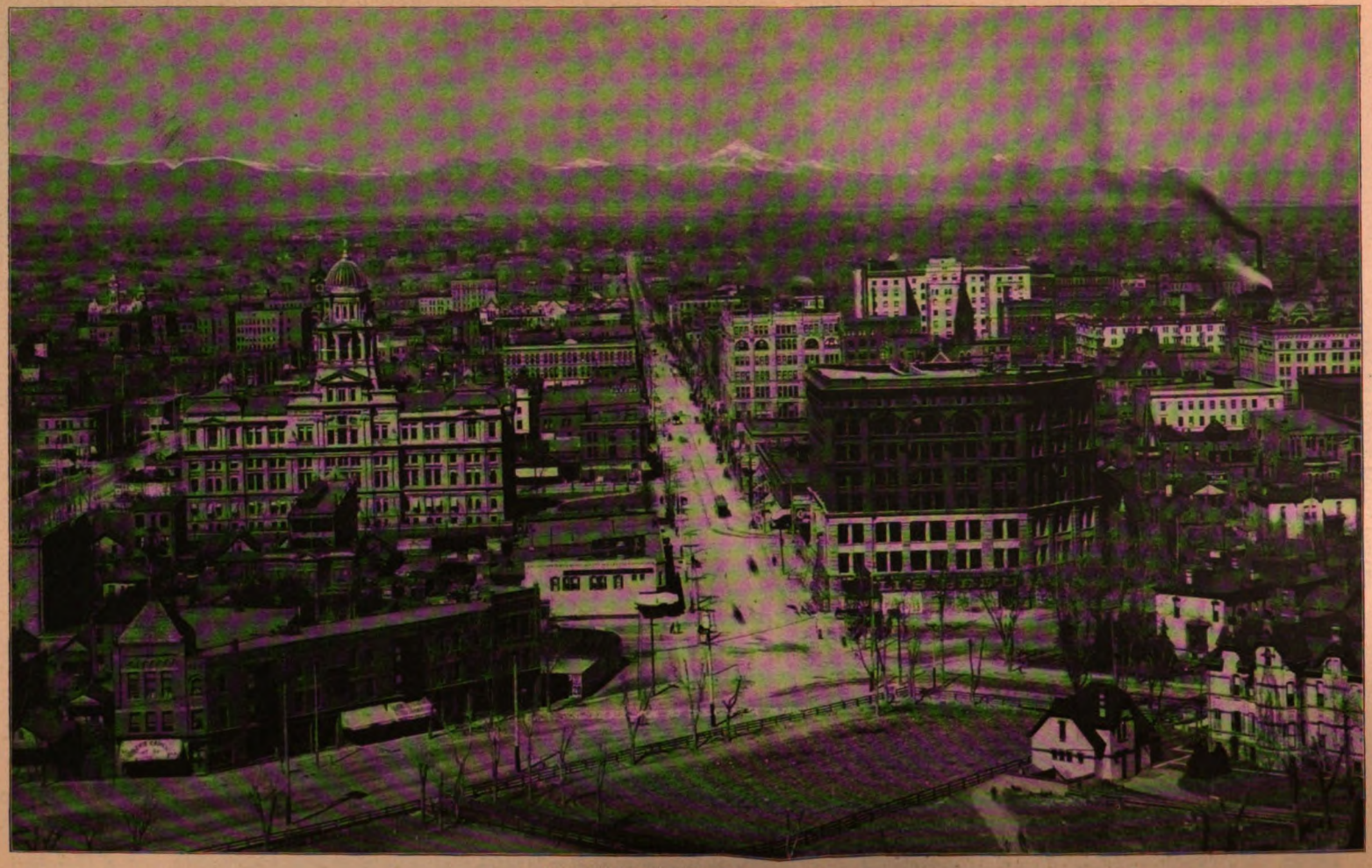

DENVER IN 1903, FROM CAPITOL HILL

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trip west, said: "The four great cities of this continent are to be New York, Chicago, Denver and San Francisco." These four cities are on the same parallel of latitude and a thousand miles apart. In the old world, cities were separated by the distance a horse could travel in a day. In the new world, the great cities are separated by the distance a railway train can go in twenty-four hours, with large secondary cities about twelve hours' ride between. The barren and mountainous country between Denver and San Francisco makes that stretch longer than a day and a night's ride and allows for the growth of a large secondary city in Utah, and Salt Lake City has preëmpted that place.

But swing a circle of a thousand miles' radius around Denver and within it is no rival. Denver commands the mountains as Chicago holds the Mississippi valley, as San Francisco dominates the Pacific slope and as New York, while serving the whole country, particularly owns the Atlantic coast. In the neighborhood of Denver, a great city had to be located. The site, the railroads and the enterprise and genius of its first inhabitants definitely fixed it where Denver regally sits.

Of the imperial future of their beautiful city, every Denverite is sure, not with the half blatant swagger and brag of Chicago, but with a serene, unquestioned, largely silent faith. Such wonderful growth have they seen that any growth seems natural. So Denver, with but 150,000 population, has all the ideals, manners, methods, atmosphere, corruptions, great activities, spirit and life of a metropolis of a million. It is far more cosmopolitan than Chicago. It is the smallest big city on the continent. Its spirit is really great.

"Oh, yes!" rejoins a native; "a thousand in the mountains counts for far more than the same number in your sluggish lowland and coast cities." This is true. The increase by immigration in Denver is so rapid that there are fewer children

BROWN PALACE HOTEL, DENVER

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CITY PARK AND PAVILION, DENVER

and old people than in a slower-growing community. You rarely see an old person on the street. This is one factor in the air of vigor about the place.

Yet Denver is not a foreign city, but more purely American than its eastern or western neighbors. By the census figures, eighty-one per cent of her population is American born, while New York has but sixty-three per cent, Boston sixty-five, Chicago sixty-five, San Francisco sixty-six. Of the foreign population but few are German with their phlegmatic temperament and a goodly number are English. In fact, among the English upper classes, Colorado is the best known state in the Union. Here they come to shoot and to invest, and here come the younger sons to grow up with the country. They have given a slight but distinct English tone to the city.

But it is mainly the American who has come and drunk the wine of her air and basked in the balm of her sunshine, so that his activities have been redoubled. He has become more active, optimistic, nervous, excitable. The walk of the people on the streets is springy and light, their eyes bright, their manner quick. They pay more attention to dress. It is rare to see an ill-dressed person on the streets, and as stylish costumes may be seen on the women as in New York and far more than in sooty Chicago or St. Louis. In proportion to its size, Denver has finer dry goods stores than its eastern sisters and their stock is of fine quality. The people look prosperous. The streets on a fine afternoon have an air of gayety and good living.

The climate has been a great factor in this development of Denver's character. She is a city of the plains, but plains that are nigh a mile (to be exact, 5,270 feet) above sea-level. Fifteen miles away is the base of the Rockies. The air has the wind-washed, ozonized, exhilarating freshness of the prairie atmosphere, united with the thinness, wonderful clarity and purity of high lands. Either quality is obtainable on the prairies or in the mountains, but it is rare to get the two qualities united. It acts like wine, giving buoyancy and sparkle. It fills the lungs so that consumption and lung diseases are unknown. It is estimated that at least a fifth of Denver's population has only one lung; yet they live and work as if normal. Digestive and bowel diseases, which depress the mind, are rare though not so completely absent as lung diseases. But oh, the number of nerve-specialist doctors in the city, and of palmists, clairvoyants, mind-healers and the like. In proportion to the population, I should say Denver was second to Boston in this respect. The air stimulates, people overdo, become nervous, and, breaking down, seek help

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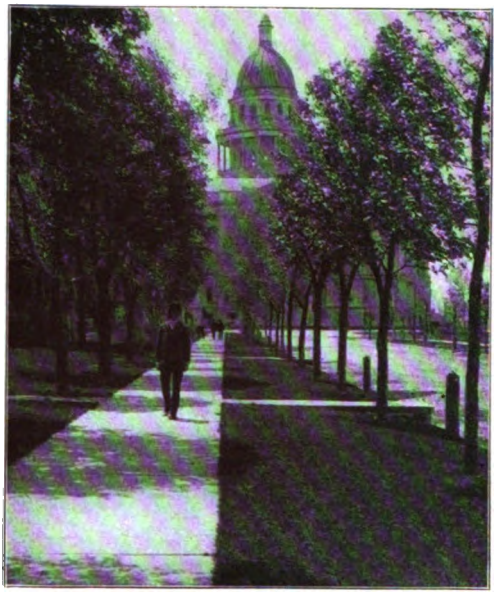

ONE OF THE SHADY AVENUES ON CAPITOL HILL

wherever they can. Many regularly go east to let up on the strain of living in this stimulating air. The air also dries and browns complexions and is very hard on hair. Few blooming complexions are seen, and a luxuriant head of hair is seen only on a newcomer. Looking closely at an old inhabitant's face you will see a number of fine wrinkles. The dryness of the air does it.

To the stimulating air is added the constant invigorating sunshine. The United States Weather Bureau gives the average number of sunny days in a year as 340. Another observer kept track for twelve years and in that time there were only thirty-two days in which the sun did not appear, or an average of less than three a year.

People have an idea that Denver is a mountain city. It is not, but lies on the plains. But circling around the west and south is the Frontier range of the Rockies; beautiful peaks rising like sentinels into the sky and lifting the thoughts as well as the eye upward. The words of the Psalmist: "I will lift up mine eyes unto the hills, from whence cometh my help," come to mind. Surely not even the lowest can be wholly sordid with that grand panorama ever before him. This is another factor in Denver's character.

Another factor which is decreasing is the gambling spirit. One or two decades ago every one in Colorado was a gambler, not always around the card-table, but at least in mines and stock. From its very nature mining is largely a gamble, and this has given to all Colorado a readiness to take chances, an audacity in execution, often a lawlessness bordering on anarchy, and a readiness to help the man who is down. But with the growth of mines into greater surety, and development of staid manufacture and agriculture, this spirit is decreasing.

Wood is scarce and high, stone near and cheap, fires were frequent and the wages of firemen as of all other workers were very high, so Denver's city fathers years ago decided that no wooden houses should be built in the city. Denver has no fire limits, because it is all within the fire limits. The result is a solidity and permanency of building rarely seen in western cities. With the dry, pure air it is unnecessary to have sleeping-rooms on the second floor and so many of the smaller homes have but one story, and few are over two stories high. This gives a pleasant, restful air to Denver's suburbs.

Denver is a beautiful city not only in its residence sections but in its business part. This has broad, well-paved streets, lined with handsome, solidly built edifices. It has few sky-scrapers and the business parts look substantial. It is laid out in rectangles with few of the fine vistas and beautiful little parks which add so much to a great city. If Denver had these it would stand high in the grade of beautiful cities in the United States. As it is I would put Washington, Detroit, Cleveland, Boston and Buffalo ahead of it, with Minneapolis close behind.

UNION STATION, DENVER

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AN OBJECTION TO SPELLING REFORM

BY

BRANDER MATTHEWS

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A FEW weeks ago, at a large dinner in Chicago, given by men and women connected with the public schools of that city, many speeches were made and many letters were read, advocating a simplification of the spelling of the English language. One of the speakers declared that "nearly every one acknowledges that our method of spelling is cumbersome and absurd; yet few are willing to make an effort to better it. We are creatures of habit, and however inconvenient or injurious our habits may be, we can not get rid of them in a day. In this matter we must, or rather we will, proceed slowly; yet something we ought all the while to be doing." A second speaker asserted that, "so far as scholarship is concerned in this question the battle is already won and has been for years. No philological scholar of eminence in England or America can be named who is not an advocate of the simplification of our spelling. The only question is how to go about it; how to overcome the inertia of our habits and prejudices."

A third speaker suggested that it is now our duty to aid by "spreading information in regard to the unhistorical and inconsistent character of our present spelling in general, and the serious hardship it imposes on all who use the language." This same speaker—who, as it happens, is a professor of English literature in a western college, after having received his doctor's degree from the oldest of eastern universities—went on to point out how our present unscientific orthography "hinders the progress of our own children and retards the Americanizing of the foreigners who are our fellow citizens. So far, there is almost no disagreement among those who come to this subject of spelling with open minds. We may, perhaps, still further agree that a little individualism in spelling would be wholesome, an occasional mild exercise of one's own good sense. It is with such proposals that an appeal can be most successfully made to the general public. No system is offered, no 'fonetik' spelling thought of; all that is suggested is the application of common sense to spelling, the adoption of a few simplified spellings, and an occasional assertion of freedom from the unreasoning subserviency to an absurd standard."

Among those who sent letters to be read at this dinner were many scholars of distinction, professors engaged in the teaching of the English language, and presidents of universities of world-wide reputation. For example, Dr. Nicholas Murray Butler, the president of Columbia University, gave it as his opinion that "no one who has followed the history of the movement to bring about a simplified spelling will fail to appreciate the cogency of the arguments for such a step, which have been advanced by eminent philologists, or of the strong practical reasons which have been put forward by teachers and others." And he added that, in his judgment, "the wisest plan of procedure is not to outline a complete and logical scheme, which would certainly be rejected violently by the vast majority of people, but rather to agree upon one or two simple and easy steps which can be taken at once and little by little justified to a larger public."

Letters were read also from many authors, editors and publishers advocating this same method of making haste slowly but steadily. Mr. Henry Holt, for instance, made the stimulating suggestion that the cause of orthographic revision can be aided in three ways: "First, by not going too fast, by not putting strange forms in the place of the cherished ones in sacred places, before people have got used to them in places not sacred. Second, by familiarizing people with the slightest and easiest and most obviously rational changes, before proceeding to the pro-

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found ones. Third, by doing the familiarizing in the places that people care least for," that is to say, in business correspondence, wherein both parties are glad of every device that will save time and increase simplicity.

These quotations have been selected to make it clear that there are many men of education and of authority who are disgusted with the present condition of English orthography, but who believe that any attempt at radical reformation will fail in the future, as all such attempts have failed in the past, and who, therefore, wish to see a concerted effort to bring about a few easily-made improvements, such as the striking out of the obviously superfluous letters from certain words. This effort is sure to be resisted by the indurated conservatives who are not only perfectly satisfied with English orthography as it is in its present state of chaos, but who are many of them grieved that any simplification ever took place in the past and who would really enjoy the privilege of spelling musicke and pædagogue and œconomics.

This opposition of the linguistic tories, as impervious to argument as tories have always been, is to be expected; and it is to be overcome by courtesy and patience, and by a willingness to explain so much of the history of English orthography as will make evident to everybody the interesting fact that every generation of those who speak English has tried to alter its spelling to conform to its pronunciation more or less accurately; and that any effort made now to simplify our spelling is only a pious continuation of the work of our forefathers. Few of the indurated conservatives know anything about the history of the orthographic survivals they defend with so much heat; and ignorance is ever the main bulwark of prejudice. This historical explanation is therefore most important; and to make sure that it is within the comprehension of the linguistic tories, it should be set forth very clearly indeed, preferably in words of one syllable.

But while the opposition of the old fogies is to be expected and must be met and overcome, there has been developed of late a new objection to any concerted action. This objection is in the nature of a side-attack; and one might even call it an attempt to dampen the fire of the assailants by cold water. Changes in orthography have taken place in the past and they will take place in the future; and there is, therefore, no need for any of us to do anything. We can sit still with folded hands and wait till the clouds roll by. The English language is a living being and it knows best what is good for it. It is quite capable of minding its own business and of making its own improvements without asking our advice or our aid.

But this is really a specious argument in favor of lazy passivity. It is dangerously attractive, because it sets forth a half-truth, always harder to nail to the counter than a complete lie. It is a fact, of course, that a language has a certain likeness to an organism and that it does grow, making such modifications of syntax and orthography as may tend to increased efficiency. As my colleague, Professor George Rice Carpenter, has recently phrased it admirably in a new and illuminative volume on "The Teaching of English," "It is becoming increasingly clear, however, not only that language is in a continual state of flux, word after word, phrase after phrase growing antiquated or dialectic, and other locutions taking their places, but that this process of decay and growth is to a large extent the result of a national striving toward an unconscious ideal."

This growth and development and expansion and modification may be on the whole the result of an unconscious striving; yet every specific change is the direct result of intention on the part of the man who first made it. No change is something that merely happened and that had to happen; every single change in spelling was always the result of an exercise of the human will. The substitution of music for musicke, of pedagog for pædagogue, of economics for œconomics was due in each case to the conscious act of the first man who set the example of simplification, although those who followed his example thereafter may or may not have been conscious that they were helping to bring about a change.

In one of Sir Walter Scott's notes on Dryden may be found risk spelled risque, and in Parkman's "Conspiracy of Pontiac" engulfed is spelled engulphed—

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orthographies that now appear strange and abnormal; yet there is no doubt that a time was when it was "risk" that seemed strange and "engulfed" that seemed abnormal. The change has been brought about by the willingness of some innovator who ventured to substitute the simpler form, and who in time led after him the rest of the users of the language. This innovator was doing what Matthew Arnold did when he substituted technic for technique, what Professor Skeat did when he insisted upon program rather than programme, what certain American librarians did when they preferred catalog to catalogue, and what certain American educators did when they urged the advantage of tho and altho over though and although. All these innovators, one after another, were consciously, intentionally, deliberately altering the previously accepted spelling. All of them were acting upon the spirit of Sainte-Beuve's admirable suggestion to the effect that "orthography is like society; it will never be entirely reformed; but we can at least make it less vicious."

And it is this suggestion of Sainte-Beuve's that all must follow who wish to see English made fit for wider service in all the quarters of the globe. We must not let the language alone in the vain belief that it will take care of itself. We must lend a hand. We must do our share, as did our ancestors in every generation before us. If we do not wish to see the language stagnate, we must help to keep the current free. We may venture on one innovation or another; we may hesitate to go far along the path of amendment or we may be ready to rush forward recklessly; we may each of us decide for ourselves what share we shall take in the task which every successive generation has to accomplish; but we must not be led to relax our efforts by any pseudo-scientific assertion that it is none of our business and that the language can slough off its old skin and appear in a new one, just as though it was a snake.

CHILDREN IN SOUTHERN COTTON-MILLS A NATIONAL PROBLEM

BY

FLORENCE KELLEY

SECRETARY NATIONAL CONSUMERS' LEAGUE

IN the manufacturing states of the South, the cotton industry is growing by leaps and bounds. Even the casual visitor notices that for almost every mill, there is a new wing just finished or under construction. Many of the large mills are doubling their capacity. Some thriving corporations are but two or three years old.

To meet the demand of this rapidly expanding manufacture, there is no adequate body of skilled labor ready for immediate use. Hence every mill-village is a center toward which the owners desire to bring as rapidly as possible men, women and children who can be trained for the processes of cotton manufacture. Some mills make it a rule to employ chiefly mountaineers who have had no experience of mill-life elsewhere. Others take all comers, welcoming especially such families as have many young members. Women and children learn more readily than men, and work for less wages when trained. Hence some corporations carry on not only schools but kindergartens for the tiny children in order that the mothers' hands may be freed for millwork. Some employers go so far as to point out that little boys and girls in the mills "are under the eyes of their parents and are, therefore, better off than they would be outside."

Colored help is not employed in the processes of manufacture. Negroes may occasionally be seen in the shipping-room where there is heavy lifting to be done; and colored women may be employed to clean floors (work which offers no advancement toward better wages or greater responsibility); but they may not "piece-up" broken threads with the

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tiniest white children, because this work paves the way to more complicated and better paid tasks. "Piecing-up" is in the line of promotion; it is, therefore, sacred to white workers. More than one deft-fingered colored girl who had paused in her work of floor-cleaning to "piece-up" broken threads has been warned by white workmen to "get out of the mill and keep out, or get killed"—and has obeyed the instruction. It is not true, though it is constantly repeated, that it is solely their irregular habits of work which render the negroes universally unavailable for the work of the mills. For the few who are permitted to perform the least attractive and well-paid tasks are found no less regular than the other employes. At the conference of Charities and Corrections, held at Atlanta in May, a lady who has lived many years in Georgia had pointed out the significant fact that the negro children are kept in school while the white children are flocking by thousands into the mills, and there growing up illiterate. Another lady, a native of Georgia, hastened to explain lest northern visitors attribute undue self-denial to negro parents, that the absence of negro children is due to the fact that they are inexorably barred from the mills.

Labor being a vital need of the growing cotton-mill industry, and the available mass of negro labor being barred out by the will of the white people, the white children become far more desirable in the eyes of employers than children of the same age are in the North, where the tide of immigration affords abundant adult and adolescent labor. It is a tragic sacrifice that the South is making to her color prejudice—the sacrifice of her white children.

Manufacturers assert that they are, in many cases, obliged against their will to keep young children at work because, if the children were unemployed, the parents would migrate to other mill-villages where the children would be eagerly taken on. Parents assert, on the other hand, that in renting a house from a mill-owner they are required to agree to furnish a specified number of hands on pain of receiving notice of the expiration of their lease. Virtually no mill-hands own their own homes; renting from the mill-owner is almost universal. Such a requirement when made is, therefore, absolute and meets with certain obedience. There is probably truth in the statements of both parties; but the difficulty of both would be met by the enactment of effective laws prohibiting the employment of young children, and this both parents and employers oppose.

The employment of children on the present scale, and during eleven hours a day, can not be regarded as a local matter for several reasons. The children are a part of the future citizenship of the republic. They are growing up in dire ignorance, beginning work at ten or twelve years of age, or even earlier. They can not go to night schools, even where there are such schools, because children are too weary after eleven hours of work. They can not learn much by going to Sunday school. Certainly no northern state would be content to leave the training of its ten or twelve year old children to the Sunday school teacher alone!

How terrible is the need of school life for the children in the industrial states of the South may be inferred from the following figures taken from the United States census of 1900 (Population, volume II., table 65, page 422):

Illiterate children between the ages of ten and fourteen years:

Kentucky	21,247
Arkansas	26,072
Virginia	34,612
Texas	35,491
Tennessee	36,375
Mississippi	44,334
North Carolina	51,190
South Carolina	51,536
Louisiana	55,691
Georgia	63,329
Alabama	66,072
Total	485,949

It may be safely affirmed that the most active agency at the present time for prolonging this appalling situation, in which nearly half a million children remain illiterate, is the cotton-mill industry. For its agents oppose before the legislatures every bill drafted for the purpose of shutting little children out of the mills; or for increasing the length of the school year. This statement stands in face of the fact that certain mill-owners conduct schools and kindergartens. Such individual efforts are but drops in the sea compared with the civic efforts which they

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check by their opposition before the legislatures.

In making goods for the world market these children are pressing heavily upon the standard of life of northern children. In New York, for instance, under the new law, children may not work in a cotton mill under the age of fourteen years; nor may they begin then, unless they can read fluently and write legibly simple sentences in the English language. Yet a corporation employing children in both New York and Georgia may have in its southern mills children six, seven or eight years old and may keep them at work, by day or by night, as many hours as it pleases. Here is a heavy temptation for the corporation to increase its southern pay-roll at the cost of the plant in a northern state.

Happily Georgia is the last remaining southern state of which this is true. For, during the past winter Alabama, Arkansas, North Carolina, Virginia, and Texas recognized the twelfth birthday as the earliest at which work may legally begin. Yet even these states made wide holes in their new statutes, by means of exceptions permitting children to work, so elastic that even the new laws amount to little more, in their initial form, than the recognition of the need of a minimum age limit.

In South Carolina, the start made is even more halting, for it will take all the time until May 1, 1905, before the children under twelve years of age will be forbidden to work. The present minimum age is ten years. From May 1, 1904, to May 1, 1905, it will be eleven years. Only after May 1, 1905, will it be twelve years.

Tennessee and Kentucky have done better than any other southern states, for they have one and two factory inspectors, respectively; and they prohibit work before the fourteenth birthday, though it must be admitted that Kentucky still permits lavish exceptions to the law.

The work of these southern children is a matter of national concern, not alone because the children are the future republic, and because they are undercutting the standard of life of the northern workers, making it increasingly difficult to maintain good wages and necessary restrictions upon the hours of work in competing mills in northern states—their work is a matter of national concern because the whole country is responsible for it. Northern employers do in the South what the laws of their own states do not permit them to do at home; and they actively prevent the enactment of restrictive legislation in the South. Many southern mills are owned by northern capital; and every northern investor in southern mill property shares the responsibility for the employment of the children who toil in those mills. Every purchaser of the product shares the responsibility by encouraging the maintenance of existing conditions.

True, there is at present no device in active use whereby the purchaser may be enabled to discriminate between textiles woven in New York and in Georgia. But this does not excuse the purchasers whose indifference permits such a device to remain lacking.

It is no longer true that the product of the southern mills is cheap stuff for the China trade. The writer has seen excellent corduroy and denim, as well as shirting and sheeting, in progress of production in Georgia in a mill which employed puny, putty-faced, barefoot children who were sadly stunted if they were really ten years old. Our cotton underclothing worn by day and our bedding by night may be wrought by young children, and we have as yet no effective way of selecting that which is spun and woven under better conditions. But this is only a question of time. What the Consumers' League is doing for stitched goods, by the use of its label, to guarantee good conditions in factories in which garments are stitched, can be extended to the textile trades whenever the public conscience grows as sensitive concerning the children in the mill-villages as it already is about the sweating system in the great cities.

It is due to the noblest people of the southern states, that a beginning has been made in the work of rescuing the children from illiteracy and overwork. When they are reinforced as they deserve to be, and surely will be, by the awakened consciences of the northern investors and the general purchasing public which, at heart, prefers to buy goods made under humane and enlightened conditions of work, the problem of the children in the southern cotton-mills will be solved.

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THE RICHEST PEOPLE IN THE WORLD

BY

EVANDER M. SWEET

SPEAKING of the unequal distribution of wealth, it is interesting to remember that the richest people inhabiting this planet are the Osage Indians, who occupy the northeastern corner of Oklahoma. Every one of the 1,833 members of the tribe has a cash balance of $4,644, deposited in the safest place on earth, in the vaults of Uncle Sam's big bank at Washington, drawing five per cent interest. In addition to this they have each 857 acres of land, about one-fifth of which is in a good state of cultivation and is worth from $10 to $30 an acre. Of the total remainder, 886,000 acres is leased for pasturage, mostly to Texas cattlemen, at an average rental that gives the land a value of $5 an acre to the Indian. But averaging up the whole at the low valuation of $8 an acre—and this does not take into consideration the oil, natural gas and coal to be found throughout that region, nor the leap in values that must follow the several lines of railway now being constructed through the reservation—the land holdings of each Osage are easily worth $6,856. That is to say, a very conservative statement of the wealth of these people must place it at not less than $11,500 for every man, woman and child of the tribe.

In order to see what a large *per capita* wealth this is, we need only call to mind that if all the millionaires and semi-billionaires of the United States would suddenly grow generous and divide up with their poor friends until everybody in the country had an equal share, each of us would have only about $1,236. A like communism in France would give about $20 more to each person, in England $200 more, besides which two countries there is no other that has a *per capita* wealth equal to that of the United States.

The Osage country is a land where baby may always be sure of a large welcome. For one reason, he has an earning capacity from the day he is born which is often quite as great as his father's. One of the next things after naming the little pappoose is to go to Pawhuska, the capital of their nation, and have its name put upon the pay-roll. Once every three months Uncle Sam pays up the interest on the money which he holds in trust for them, and the amount paid to each Indian varies from time to time according to how many have gone to the Happy Hunting Ground and how many wee ones have come to take their places since last pay-day. The latest little arrival at the newest built wigwam receives just as much as does the oldest grandfather or the most athletic "warrior." So that when Chief Look Out not long ago had the happiness to be blessed with twins, he was not only eligible to the usual congratulations due a new father, but at the same time, unlike most new fathers, he found his estate increased by the snug little sum of $23,000. For, until the children reach the age of eighteen their incomes are paid to their parents.

The Osage funds in the Treasury at Washington amount to $8,516,470.60, the interest on which, at five per cent, is $425,-823.53 per annum. To this must be added each year about $155,000 of "grass money," as they call the rental from their pasture lands. So that, after deducting the expenses of government, schools and public improvements, there is left for each Indian something near $300 a year. Thus a family consisting of father, mother and eight children, and there are a number of such size families, count on about $3,000 a year spending-money in addition to what they may be able to make on their farm.

Even among these Indians, however, where exists perhaps the most complete communism on earth, the wealth has not remained in equal distribution. In Pawhuska one may see almost every type of architecture, from the primitive teepee to the modern brown-stone building with steam heat and electric light. And as

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OFFICIAL RESIDENCE OF THE GOVERNOR-CHIEF OF THE OSAGE NATION
Occupied by Ne-kah-wah-she-tun-kah during his quarterly visits to Pawhuska

the land is held in common, each Indian may have the produce from all that he will cultivate. Accordingly the thrifty have far outstripped their indolent neighbors, putting farm after farm under fence. If an Osage sees a piece of unbroken land that he wants for a farm, he simply confers with the Indian agent and takes possession. Next year he will probably rent it to a white man and go find him another, if, indeed, he had not already bargained with the white man to take the raw land and bring it to a state of cultivation for him. In this way a majority of the Osages have from one to six farms, while some have accumulated around them live stock and other property worth from $25,000 to $200,000. They have built themselves homes that would grace any rural section of the Union; the floors are covered with fine carpets; the parlor is not without its piano, nor is it an idle instrument; many sons and daughters go away to boarding school, and when the family go from home, they ride in splendid carriages, often behind a span of thoroughbreds.

But it must not be inferred that Pawhuska is the capital of a Utopian land, or that mere wealth brings happiness to the Indian any more than to the pale face. However much we might be disposed to do so, we can not overlook that considerable number who are slow to learn the art of labor, who look almost entirely to their annuities for a living, always spend their money before they get it and are never out of debt.

They are coming more and more, however, to know the value of thrift and education. Several of the Christian churches maintain missions and schools among them, in addition to which there is the large Osage boarding school at Pawhuska, supported by their own funds, wherein the course of instruction begins with the kindergarten. The aims of educational work among them are primarily practical; to teach the Indian, first of all, to take care of himself, as well as to teach him the other duties of citizenship, for which it is hoped that the rising generation will be amply qualified. So along with their geography the boys are taught to cultivate the soil, and to care for horses, pigs and cattle, while with their arithmetic is

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READY FOR A WAR DANCE

mingled the use of the saw and the jack-plane. The girls, likewise, learn to cook and sew, and in fancywork and music they manifest especial delight and aptitude.

While the Osages have made more progress in civilization than many of the more northern tribes, they have not advanced so far as have the Five Civilized Tribes, their near neighbors to the south and east. Perhaps the chief reason of this is the very fact of their great wealth; they have not known the sharp prod of necessity. But another cause is to be found in their greater isolation. The 2,300 square miles that constitute their homeland have only within the last year felt the goading influence of the railroad builder's pick. Thus have the people more easily retained many of the curious customs belonging to the original children of the forest. Nearly half the tribe being of unmixed Indian blood, about seven hundred of these have continued until this day to eschew the coat and trousers of the pale face. They think their old-time blankets are more stylish—the brighter the colors the better—and wear them winter and summer. Most of them like the white man's kind of shoes, though some still prefer their native moccasins, while as to hats, many wear none at all.

The tribe comprises seventeen bands, each having its chief; besides whom there is the big chief of the whole tribe, who, by way of distinction from the other lesser chiefs, is given the commonplace title of "governor." He is elected by his people every two years, but the functions of his high office are now almost exclusively social, since of recent years all legislation for the tribe is attended to by the Great Father at Washington. Né-kah-wah-she-tún-kah, the present governor-chief, belongs to the Big Hill Band, whose wigwams are in the southwestern part of the reservation near Gray Horse. For while many of them have homes on their farms, built after the manner the white man has showed them, they are not always to be found there. Yielding to their strong social instincts, they dwell much in wigwam villages, especially in summer time; and there is much visiting between bands, as well as between the Osages and other neighboring tribes. When one band or tribe visits another, they must always have a "smoke" together, at which, after the pipe of peace has been passed around, there is an interchange of

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presents, such as blankets, furs, bridles, saddles, and sometimes even ponies. Indeed, the "buckskin" pony is now valued chiefly for his social importance. He is rather too small for farm work, but, like the dog, he holds an honored place in the domestic circle.

But of all the primitive customs to which the full-blood element of the tribe still adhere, there is none more interesting than the elaborate ceremony with which a young man woos and wins a maid. When the brave heart of a handsome warrior falls captive to a maiden's charms, it is not long until he, as if setting an example to his white cousin, takes his father and mother into his confidence. Forthwith the wigwam of the noble sire is moved, accompanied by all the accoutrements of Cupid's Indian wars, and pitched near enough to Minnehaha's tent so that the Osage Hiawatha, if he has not forgotten his archery, can shoot an arrow beyond it. But now, like other papas, Minnie's wants to know how strong in unselfishness is the hand that seeks hers. So he says, in effect: "If you want her, pony up." And this is just what Hiawatha proceeds literally to do. He brings, say, five ponies and hitches them in front of his sweetheart's teepee. Soon afterward her father comes out, deliberately unties them, and lets them go scampering off over the plain; for they are not enough to offer for a daughter so charming as his. When Hiawatha has succeeded in catching them, he adds perhaps two more and ties the seven before the wigwam of his lady love, only to see them go galloping away as before. And so on until the number has grown large enough to be an acceptable expression of a lover's devotion in the eyes of the father, whereupon he unlooses them again, but takes them this time to the rear of his tent and ties them among his own. And now there is merry-making at Hiawatha's teepee, for he sees the success of his wooing.

The number required varies, depending upon the pony-wealth of the suitor and the caprice of the sought. Often not less than fifteen are acceptable; whereas some months ago when a certain brave of the Eagle Band had lifted his adoration to the key of twenty-five, merely to see them let loose again by an over-avaricious parent, his heart fainted within him, and, taking comfort in the white man's old saying about there being other pebbles on the beach, he withdrew his suit!

The ponies being accepted, the next thing is to fix the wedding day, usually about a week or two later. When that good sun has arisen, Minnehaha is robed in her prettiest blanket, gorgeously trimmed in vari-colored ribbons, and set astride her favorite pony, ready to be

CORN DROPPER, THE OSAGE INTERPRETER, AT HOME

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RESIDENCE OF AN OSAGE, PAWHUSKA

given away. The firing of a gun into the air signifies the starting of the bridal procession. Meanwhile Hiawatha has been listening at the door of his wigwam, surrounded by his friends, particularly all his feminine relatives, his mother, aunts, in fact all the women that can lay any claim to kinship. And although untrained in basket ball, these know how to run. At the crack of the gun they all break out in a race to meet the bride—to welcome her, yes, but to the one who reaches her first belongs first choice of her equipment, which is the pony; to the next, the blanket upon which she sat; to the third, perhaps the bridle; then her ribbons, and so on until everything detachable has been divided among them as souvenirs. Then follows nowadays, sometimes, a Christian ceremony.

Going by stage from Elgin, Kansas, not long ago, about seven miles east of Pawhuska my attention was attracted by the bright stripes of a new American flag floating in the sunshine some distance from the roadside, with apparently nothing but the bald prairie underneath. What was Old Glory doing away out there, not a house of any kind in sight? Upon inquiry and investigation I ascertained that the flag was there guarding an oblong mound of stones that marked the last resting place of Red Eagle. For when an Osage dies, over the head of his grave is unfurled the stars and stripes, never again to be lowered. There it stands and waves and flaps for weeks and weeks, according to the season of the year and the strength of the winds, until the last thread of the last star has climbed upon the bosom of the breeze and been borne to—who knows where?

That the ensign of the Great White Father should be put to such sacred use is a rich fact for the attention of the poet. The race not being much given to written records, no one seems to know just how the custom originated. Corn Dropper, the present interpreter for the tribe, remembers that the flag was used in this way as far back as 1862. At first it was raised only over the grave of a chief or a member of a chief's family, but of more recent years it is the privilege of every Osage thus to be accompanied by the brave spirit of his country on the last long journey.

Fifty years ago the home of the Osages was in southern Kansas, where they owned a strip of land fifty miles wide, reaching two-thirds of the distance across the state. But the influx of immigration into that section in the sixties brought trouble for poor Lo. He could not longer chase the buffalo over the plains without shooing away the dove from the camp of some pale faced dweller on the border, who would send in evil reports and call Lo bad names. By-and-by Uncle Sam told the Osages that if they would buy a new homeland from their Cherokee cousins to the south, he could take better care of them down there, whereas he would sell their Kansas lands to the white men and guarantee to collect the money. This arrangement pleased the Osages, who after a few years found themselves with more land than they could possibly use, and with upwards of eight and a half millions of dollars to their credit in the United States Treasury.

Already initial steps have been taken looking toward allotment in severalty and opening up the Osage country to the settlement of the white man. And when once the Anglo-Saxon can acquire a title, he will by object lesson teach his good neighbor Brown more about building homes and schools and mills in a decade than the Browns would otherwise come to know in half a century. That means a larger life for the Indian; whereas for many a thrifty young pale face who loves the rugged strength of the soil and the lowing of herds, it means opportunity and fortune.

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DIPLOMACY AS SEEN BY A DIPLOMAT

BY

CHARLES DENBY

FORMER MINISTER TO CHINA

IN considering the relation of foreigners to eastern countries it must always be borne in mind that the principle and practice of extra-territoriality exist in their borders. This system greatly modifies the duties of the ministers to those countries. Few persons stop to consider the importance of extra-territoriality, its extent, or its influence upon the nations among whom it prevails. Under Title 47, Sections 4,083-4,130, of the United States statutes we have consular courts in China, Korea, Maskat, Morocco, Persia, Samoa, Siam, Tonga, Turkey and Zanzibar. Until July 17, 1898, we had such courts in Japan. Of all the non-Christian, or eastern nations, that ambitious empire is the only one that has thrown off the judicial yoke of the foreigner. In all the countries above enumerated the foreigner can be sued in no court save his own. This immunity from native jurisdiction results in creating a feeling of inferiority among the natives, who realize that the foreigner lives on a higher plane than they do. The legal procedures in these courts differ greatly from those prevailing here at home. There are no grand juries, or petit juries, but the consul may call in assessors to assist him in either criminal or civil cases. Although the American loses the much esteemed right to be tried by a jury, he gains inestimable privileges. In China, for instance, he is not subject to the prevailing system of tortures, or the terribly severe criminal code. The ministers in the countries named constitute respectively an appellate court to which appeals lie from the consular courts.

Practically the minister in China becomes an integral part of the government of the country. He sees that the treaties are observed in their letter and spirit. He objects to decrees which antagonize them. It was the custom for the Tsungli Yamen —Foreign Office—to submit to the diplomatic corps any proposed change in the laws which applied to foreigners before its promulgation, and it sometimes happened that the new regulations were thrown out. The minister sedulously watches any change in the tariff, which may be injurious to his people, and he announces to the Yamen that he will not be bound by any alteration which conflicts with the treaties. In the matter of protecting his fellow citizens, of course, he is active and aggressive. In all cases where damage has been done he demands compensation, and he freely denounces all officials who fail in their duty to foreigners. He endeavors to suppress abusive publications, with which China teems; he recommends new facilities for commerce; he insists on the removal of obstructions in navigable rivers, notably at Shanghai, Canton and in the Peiho; he attacks monopolies granted, or proposed to be granted to the representatives of other nations. In European countries his passport would be handed to him if he attempted to do a tithe of the things which he does every day in China.

The world sets great stress upon the possession by members of the diplomatic corps of the graces of cultured life. I remember when a certain gentleman from southern Indiana, who shall be nameless, was appointed a minister, the press rang with doubts whether this "Hoosier" was fit for the place. The chief objection seemed to be that he hailed from southern Indiana, which is very wrongfully supposed to be the habitat of uncouth people. As the writer has lived in that section half a century he can not, under Chinese rules, praise it. If he could, he would say of it that no other part of our common country surpasses it in the culture, intelligence or good manners of its inhabitants. I venture to say that whatever imperfections attended the gentleman alluded to, and they were many, none of them were due to his residence in southern Indiana.

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Supposing, however, that the possession of the graces of civilized life is a consideration to be taken into account in the selection of ambassadors, as no doubt it is, still it may be said that these accomplishments were of less account in China than almost anywhere else. There was in my day no court circle in China. There were no imperial balls, receptions or dinners. The diplomatic corps dined once a year with the members of the Tsungli Yamen and heads of boards, and that was the only official entertainment that we attended. During the last five or six years of my stay in China we saw the emperor once a year, at the Chinese New Year, in audience. According to etiquette visits were not exchanged between the nobility, or officials, and foreigners, and no Chinese ladies, with two exceptions, the Marchioness Tseng and Madame Yu, ever appeared when foreigners were present. Li Hung Chang, the Marquis Tseng and Chang Ing Huan, however, sometimes dined with foreigners. In the country one could be as friendly as he pleased, and visits were interchanged between the ministers and Chinese grandees, and their respective families, but in the city social intercourse was tabooed.

By an ingenious fiction the members of the corps are supposed to constitute one great family, which is bound together by ties of friendship and affection. Certainly there never prevailed anywhere better feeling than reigned at Peking among the foreign representatives and their families. During the thirteen years of my stay I can recall only one incident in which bad blood was generated. That arose from the eternally discussed question of precedence at table, and out of it grew a quarrel between a second secretary and an interpreter, which for a while looked ominous. It was arranged, however, by sending one of the parties to the French penal diplomatic settlement, San Domingo.

As between the middle of December and the middle of March we were frozen up, relying on ponies to carry the mails, we were thrown on our own resources. I presume that no more elegant or delightful dinners, concerts or private theatricals were ever given than were common during the winter. Sir Robert Hart, the inspector general of the imperial maritime customs, had the practice of bringing the pick of his corps to Peking. Beautiful women and charming young men were summoned to the capital. The gentlemen were all graduates of colleges and, usually, accomplished musicians. The dinners of their chief were made memorable by the concerts which succeeded them. Life in Peking was country life on a grand scale. Everybody rode the little Mongolian ponies. There were races twice a year with only gentlemen riders. Society was small. One winter we had only one lady in the diplomatic circle. We had her at all the dinners. She was our mascot. The minister must take part in and contribute to all this gayety, and, if he can not shine in it, he may perhaps become conspicuous as a member of the Asiatic Society, and make himself famous in literature.

A very common, but rather disagreeable part of a minister's duty is to procure, or endeavor to procure, grants, franchises and concessions for his nationals. There is a distinct class of persons in China who go by the general name of "promoters." These gentlemen constitute a large and influential class. At home they were persons of distinction, and for that reason were selected to manage the delicate business of wringing valuable concessions from the unimpressionable Chinese. They may have been senators, generals, financiers, editors or lawyers. They are usually men of society, who understand the art of dinner giving and "grafting." In general they are exceedingly plausible, but they can be on occasion quite aggressive. Having fortified themselves with what the English call a "soup ticket," that is to say, a general letter of introduction from the State Department—an imposition which is now happily abolished—and bearing a score of letters from distinguished United States officials, governors, members of Congress, etc., the promoters have the minister at their mercy. There is absolutely no escape from compliance with their demands. Behind them stand the great newspapers, which are always panting for an opportunity to publish a sensational item about men in high office. Such items are easily found, or more easily invented. They amount to nothing until they are paraded in double-leaded type in the columns of a metropolitan daily. The better plan, therefore, is for

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the minister to pitch in "tooth and toe-nail" to secure the right, it may be, to construct a railroad a thousand miles long, or the purchase by China of a half-dozen war ships, or the sale to China of a dynamite gun, or the establishment of a national postoffice, or a banking system, or the dredging of the Yellow river, or some other stream, or the loan of 500,000,000 taels to China under a plan by which she will pay the debt in a few years, and will still have the originally borrowed sum in her coffers.

Intermingled with pure commercialism, sometimes as subsidiary to mere physical progress, there are presented to the minister for transmission to the Yamen essays on moral improvement. The corruption of the Chinese government is deplored by these gentlemen, and the remedy of paying adequate salaries and not permitting "squeezing," and being honest in making contracts is enjoined. It does not require much acumen to see that a promoter will gain nothing by attacking the identical vices whose practice constitutes for the Chinese the only inducement to make any contract whatever. Nevertheless, this course is sometimes adopted by a promoter, who is carried away by the desire to excel in composition, and who afterward wonders that his scheme was not adopted. According to this theory the way to secure a contract in England would be to attack the king, the House of Lords, and primogeniture, but I do not advise any one to try it.

That the labors of the ministers do bear fruit may be seen all over China. Partly completed railroads are gridironing that country. The Americans have a line from Hankow to Canton; the Belgians one from Hankow to Peking; the Germans one from Tientsin to Chinkiang; the Russians an Eastern Manchuria line, besides the great Siberian road; the English a line up the Yangtze valley; the French one from Tonquin to the southern provinces; the Imperial government, the road from Tientsin to Peking and half the road from Tacu to Shanhaiquan, the Chinese stockholders owning the other half. Other roads are projected. Mines, too, are being opened by foreigners all over China.

In some sense the American minister in China may be said to be the Executive, the State Department, Congress, the Supreme Court and the Attorney-General rolled into one office. As Attorney-General he is expected to advocate any, and all, schemes devised by his countrymen. He is bound to assume in all cases that his countrymen are in the right and the Chinese are in the wrong. It is considered a convincing proof of mental weakness and moral obliquity, if the minister dares to look into the right or the wrong of any question which is alleged to involve the substantial interests of his countrymen. Nevertheless, it sometimes happens that claims presented by Americans are not in all respects exactly just. In such cases a decent self-respect demands that they be not presented, but the minister must look out for a storm.

I might fill many pages with the curious cases in which I took part, but space does not permit it. From trivial matters up to those of grave importance, such as the making of treaties, or negotiating for peace, or regulating commerce, the space is great, but it must be traversed by the minister. It thus happens that except the embassy to England, that to China has been the most important of all our foreign missions. A canvass of the names of the distinguished men who have been commissioners, or ministers, to China, will bear out this assertion. First on the list comes the name of Caleb Cushing, who is universally conceded to have been one of the brightest intellects and finest scholars that America has produced. After him come John W. Davis, Humphry Marshall, Robert M. McLane, Anson Burlingame, John E. Ward, Alexander H. Everett, William B. Read, Frederick W. Seward, James B. Angell, Governor Lowe, John Russell Young, and my own successor, Hon. Edwin H. Conger, who was at Peking during the riots of 1900, and who has made a splendid reputation. Except the legation at London no one can present a more brilliant galaxy of prudent, wise, industrious, able diplomatists. These men and others have built up our prestige in the Orient. By their labors in part a great commerce has been created, peace has been kept, and we have reached a position in which we are loved by the Chinese, and respected by all the other powers.

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CHILD LIFE IN THE SUBMERGED TENTH

BY

PERCY ALDEN

HONORARY WARDEN OF MANSFIELD HOUSE, LONDON

But these others—children small,
Spilt like blots about the city,
Quay and street, and palace-wall—
Take them up into your pity!
—*Elizabeth Barrett Browning.*

"EVERY contact with nature," says Froebel, "elevates, strengthens, purifies." What are we to say, then, of the chances of those who, from one year's end to another, have no more accurate knowledge of nature than can be obtained from an observation of the city sparrow? There are hundreds of thousands of children in London, who, so far from understanding the glory of the country in spring time or summer, have not even seen a small recreation-ground or park, have not played upon one of those blotches of worn-out yellow grass which constitute London's playgrounds. London is far from being destitute of greenery, but unfortunately the best and most glorious public parks are not by any means the nearest to the very poor, and a distance of anything over a mile in a crowded city seems almost like the illimitable veldt to the little child or the worn-out woman.

An archbishop of Canterbury, in a moment of grim truthfulness, once described the submerged tenth as "a suffering population which can hardly exist, hanging on the sharp edge of illness and hunger, and in full sight of abundance, luxury and waste." But the hunger and the illness tell far more upon the child than upon the adult. A stress of sickness or a spell of severe weather will carry off thousands of little victims, while a fever epidemic will decimate the ranks of the children throughout an entire district. The infant mortality of a slum neighborhood during a spell of hot weather reminds one of the Egyptian plague. Almost every house furnishes its quota of dead. Insurance societies become increasingly busy, while the undertaker does an enormous trade in children's funerals at $5 each. The cry of this great multitude of suffering children rises to the heavens in one piteous wail of agony, but the heavens seem to be of brass, and the ears of the people of England are hardened that they can not hear. Another Mrs. Browning is needed to make us listen to the children weeping "in the country of the free!"

We can not ignore the fact that the whole question of child suffering is a part of the deeper problem of poverty, that eternal nightmare of the social reformer. It has been decided in England that parental affection, in face of competition and the wolf, "Hunger," is not sufficient protection against premature child labor and the evil conditions of factory life. The child has still to be protected against the father and the mother, who, partly through ignorance and partly through carelessness, are willing to condemn their children to an early grave or to lifelong suffering for the sake of the paltry wage which such children can earn.

Both in England and the United States this question of child labor is exciting at the present moment the greatest interest, but the efforts of social reformers on behalf of the children must be sustained by an enlightened public opinion, if selfishness and ignorance are not to triumph. I do not blame the parents of the children so much as I do the thoughtless or avaricious employer. To the former, life is a frenzied rush for bare existence; they have no time to examine very closely into the rights and wrongs of any particular line of conduct. They work ceaselessly for the necessaries of life, or at least many of them do. The one essential to them seems to be a sufficiency of food. There is no time to allow the children to "see their fairies and dream their dreams." Accordingly, Tommy has to work in a shop at night after school hours and on Saturdays, or he gets up at five in the morning to assist some milkman,

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NEGLECTED CHILDREN OF THE LONDON SLUMS

or together with his mother he makes match boxes at less than a nickel a gross. Mary Ann has to help in the making of cheap shirts or cheap clothing, or candle boxes, or horse bands, and the excuse of the parents (and it is a very natural excuse) is that even the simplest food can not be found for the children unless their work is forthcoming.

Even here, however, there are touches of brightness. I well remember seeing an old coster, who made his living by selling flowers in pots from house to house, going his rounds in a very poor district with his little grandchild seated in the midst of the flowers. She was a golden-haired, sunny-faced child, and though her clothing was of the poorest description, it was neat and clean. The gray-haired old man was evidently passionately devoted to the child, and as she sat there, surrounded by banks of flowers, she made the sweetest possible picture. Street trading may have its dark side, but here at any rate was a bright patch of sunlight. Even where the people were too poor to purchase flowers, they nevertheless came out to see and to smell them, not forgetting to pay homage to the youthful queen who sat enthroned therein. The man, if I remember aright, had been a prize-fighter, but all his mighty power had been subdued to gentler arts and ways. The metamorphosis "into something rich and strange" was complete. As an old lady, who had overheard his terms of endearment, remarked in language worthy of Mrs. Malaprop, " 'E do wusship 'er, 'e do, 'e simply 'analyses' that child." Too seldom, alas! do these glimpses of the ideal come to us. As a general rule the hardness of the life promotes carelessness on the part of the parents, and the pity of it is, the children have to bear the brunt and grow hard in turn. No wonder that a little boy when asked, "What is our duty to our neighbor?" should answer, "To keep your eye on 'im."

It is not always the fault of the parents that the children suffer. The poor widow who has perforce to earn a scanty livelihood by washing or charing, is unable to give much attention to her children. My wife, on one occasion, called at a house in a very poor district of the Docks to see a patient. She was told of a child ill in the next room. She found it in a very serious state; it was tied into a chair to prevent it falling about, and for hour after hour it was left in this condition, while the mother was at work some distance off in the fields and market gardens. How many of us hear the "child's sob in the silence?" How many of us are willing to make any effort to change the conditions which imply so much suffering for the child?

Let us examine some of these conditions under which the children of the poor live, or attempt to live. We will take a typical mean street, or rather a typical slum. It consists of thirty-nine houses, each house

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with six rooms. The houses are let off in tenements of one, two or three rooms. It is a blind alley, and therefore less cared for from a sanitary point of view than a thoroughfare. A good deal of refuse and garbage is lying about. A channel down the center of the alley conveys a stream of liquid filth, in which the children play. The houses, badly built in the first place, are now tottering with age, and leaning against one another as if for support. The woodwork of the floors is decayed, and in some cases, below the woodwork, where the drains are defective, several inches of sewage render disease almost a certainty. The staircases are without rails, the walls without paper and full of holes, the doors hang dejectedly on their hinges. The children in this lane, numbering 352, seem to resemble nothing so much as plants that have been kept in a cellar. Their faces are bleached and etiolated, with a wizened old-world look upon them. Very early in their lives they feel the weight of care and of sorrow, and many of them go to school every morning breakfastless. How can we expect from such children the quick intellectual response, the mental capacity, or the bodily strength which school life demands? When we reflect that children who are suffering from similar disadvantageous circumstances are to be numbered not by fifties, but by hundreds and thousands in London, we may well be surprised that the evils are not even greater than they are.

AN ENGLISH STREET BOY

It is generally supposed that children delight to be dirty, and are not particularly fond of the water. In so far as this is true, I think it is due for the most part to lack of training. Up to quite recently no opportunities were offered them of cultivating their sense of cleanliness. When I first went to the Dock district in East London, I found children, both boys and girls, on hot summer days bathing in the tidal ditches, which, though at some previous time in their history may have been filled with clean, brackish water, were nothing but evil-smelling reservoirs of diluted sewage. The fetid odors of these ditches were enough almost to kill an adult, and it is not to be wondered that typhoid was common in their immediate vicinity, especially when we remember that the children bathed in them. I wrote a plea for the Water-babies to the daily papers, calling the attention of the public to this state of things, and it finally ended in the construction of public baths by the local authorities.

The desire of children to be clean finally becomes a habit. A little girl whose brother had been to the boys' camp for a fortnight, once gave this report of his strange and unaccustomed conduct. "He washes himself *every* morning, and talks to some one in the country every night;" this latter clause being her definition of prayer. A mother once complained that her little girl could not very well go to the Settlement, because she always insisted upon having a bath before going. It may possibly have been an error on the child's part, but it was certainly an error in the right direction.

As a member of the London School Board, I have been very glad to note the increased interest taken in the question of baths and swimming by educational authorities. The London School Board itself has given swimming lessons to many thousands of children every season, and during the short summer, something like fifteen thousand boys and girls are taught to swim, while considerably over half a

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EAST END CHILDREN DANCING AROUND A MAY-POLE
In the garden at the rear of Mansfield House Boys' Club

million baths are provided. This is, of course, a comparatively small number, compared with the enormous number of children under the London Board, but instructors are rapidly being appointed, and in addition to the five swimming baths belonging to the board, the public baths belonging to the Borough Councils are called into requisition. It is scarcely possible to exaggerate the value of this branch of education.

The various societies, both in England and America, who make it their business to give a summer holiday to poor children, have already done a magnificent work. They have "builded better than they knew," for the impressions made upon the plastic mind of the child can never be altogether wiped out. For a few short weeks the gates of fairyland are opened to them. They look upon sights and they hear sounds that seem to awake memories of some past existence, when life was not all smoke, and grime, and hunger. For aught we know, Wordsworth and Plato may both be right, our birth may be "but a sleep and a forgetting" and we may enter this world "trailing clouds of glory," but the glory is all too soon to fade away, and if the song of birds, the babbling of the brook and the sight of green fields can restore the dream, we have not labored in vain. Question a child on its return from the country, and you will find how great is the impact of the new idea, how tremendous the contrast between the old and the new. I remember once asking a little girl what she liked best in the country. She lived opposite a piece of waste land, upon which were plentifully bestrewn tin pots and pans, dead cats and garbage. Her answer was brief and to the point. "Seeing no dead cats," she replied, and I confess, that knowing where she lived, I sympathized with her.

In the country it is perhaps possible to teach children lessons that they could

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A LITTLE MOTHER

never learn in the town. To the poor children of the submerged tenth, love and beauty and God are meaningless terms. They can not be asked to say the Lord's Prayer, if the father is a drunken brute. Or what can we expect from the child of a mother who hisses through her teeth, "I'd kill yer, yas, I'd kill yer, if only I knowed 'ow." They can not be asked to reverence anything that is worthy of reverence, if they have never known it or seen it in life. Even a short stay in the country alters their whole attitude. A child, one evening just before bedtime, when she was eating her supper on the doorstep of a cottage, said, "Do yer see that sky, sister? I often looks at it like this when I'm at 'ome, just when its gitting dark, yer know, and I allus cries; it mikes me fink of being 'ere, and mikes me want ter be good."

I have a very vivid recollection of a story told me by a member of the local school board, who was also my colleague, with reference to a little girl who never attended school on Monday morning for a long while. She was called up by my friend and asked the reason, and her answer was, "If you please, sir, father always makes me drunk on Sundays." It seemed almost incredible that such should have been the case, but on further inquiry the story was found to be true.

Town-bred children, especially children of the poor, are particularly lacking in any true conception of play. I do not mean that they are not always ready to find some amusement in the streets, but their games are unfortunately of a somewhat morbid description. The make-believe games that appeal to the children of the poor seem to be rent-collecting and funerals. These are every-day events of their life. A part of the former game is almost invariably the entry of the brokers and distraint upon goods. This leads to a scene of wild excitement, and sometimes to a sort of free fight between the actors and actresses in the drama. In order to remedy this dearth of healthy amusement, Guilds of Play have been started, and at Mansfield House we have found such guilds one of the most useful methods of interesting and helping the children. They are taught to sing the old English songs, and play the old English games, and finally to dance round a Maypole garlanded with flowers, on May-day. For a good many years now, a party of these children has been taken out of the town into the heart of Epping Forest on some bright day in summer, where the Maypole dances in such idyllic surroundings remind us of the "Merrie England" of William Morris. As they return home to the crowded gas-lit streets at night, crowned with flowers and happiness, it is impossible to believe that these children are returning to their natural home, the slum. Insensibly, under the combined influence of sunshine and sympathy, their manners become gentler and more refined. It is only another proof of the fact that runs throughout the whole of our social life, that we are apt to become very much like our environment. Whatever our views may be with regard to the methods employed in helping poverty-stricken parents, there can be no doubt that it is of the utmost importance to make an attempt to rescue the children from the degradation and demoralization almost inseparable from their life. Christians must lead the way in this great work of rescue. "A stunted growth to rear to fair completeness" is surely not only a part of the mission of the church, but perhaps its first duty.

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MINISTERS AND LABOR LEADERSHIP

BY

A. A. BERLE

PASTOR OF UNION PARK CONGREGATIONAL CHURCH, CHICAGO

THE labor question is unquestionably the question of the hour. This is the case not merely because it is a great question in itself, but also because it seems to be the medium through which many other related questions are likely to receive their ultimate solution, or at least to develop the tendencies out of which their final solution is to emerge. For example, when the Chicago Teachers' Federation allied itself with the labor organizations of Chicago it was easy to foresee that the first manifestation of the new alliance would be a demand for labor representation on the Board of Education. And this is but the first of a series of such demands which follow naturally and appropriately from the first step. Thus the matter of public education in Chicago may in the not distant future turn upon what happens in the labor world and especially upon the state of public opinion among labor leaders as to their conception of the proper use of the power they wield, and also upon their idea of the proper relations of the social classes, as well as of those who are industrially related to each other.

The enlargement of municipal functions, not merely in the direction of ownership of public utilities, but also in the direction of public pleasure and enjoyment, is almost directly the outcome of the labor agitations and is likely to create questions not now even anticipated by many. In Boston, where there is a Municipal Music Commission, the question of the employment of union labor for the amusement of the public has already arisen. What does that suggest as to labor's future control of the development of the artistic sense among the people?

In the same city, when the question arose as to the proper disposition of the great Franklin fund, which has been many years accumulating, involving over a million dollars, it was a great revelation to many of the conservative citizens to learn that in the comprehensive program which the labor leaders had outlined for the municipality, the disposition of the Franklin Fund had a material part. This program has not been diminished in recent years; on the contrary, it has extended and become more inclusive, and the simple fact revealed by it all is that there is practically no limit to the possibilities of a thoroughly federated and carefully controlled movement of the wage-earners of the land.

In a similar way the religious future of the nation is bound up in the solution of the labor question. The masses of men must always belong to the wage-earning class, and for that reason the masses of those who compose the Christian church must come from this class also. Christianity has always been the religion of the toilers. And whatever the practice of the Christian church may have been in the past or is at present, when the church lives up to its own theory of itself it is the haven of refuge for the laboring millions and their only substantial hope for comfort, peace and happiness in this world. The religion of Jesus has always been strongest, too, among this very class. And for many years it has become steadily more and more true that its ministry is recruited from the ranks of those who may properly be styled wage-earners. Wealth, luxury, immunity from anxiety concerning the daily bread, liberal education secured without particular hardship, have tended to make the well-to-do class of society practically sterile in so far as producing a ministry for the church is concerned. It can not be accidental, that it may safely be laid down as a general rule that where opportunity has been most abundant and the occasion for personal self-development most sumptuous, there also is found the least productive soil for the ministerial calling. Hence it has come about that the church has had, as a rule, a ministry which by natural

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selection was fitted for sympathy with the toiling masses of the world. There is no reason for supposing that this condition will change. On the contrary, there is every reason for believing that it will be more true in the future than it has been in the past.

The fact just mentioned is responsible for a curious bit of natural history on the subject of the relation of ministers to the labor movement. While the ministry has for the most part been sympathetic and traditionally friendly to the cause of labor, the church has for the most part held the opposite attitude. It is an odd fact that though the churches have been conservative, many of them very conservative, and cautious in their expressions of hospitality for the ideas which govern the majority of labor leaders, the ministers in these churches, as individuals, have taken a large and very important part in these movements, not only in shaping public opinion but in helping along legislative enactments looking to better conditions for the laborers, as well as mediating between parties in controversy and performing a thousand other offices of encouragement, help and relief. Whatever charges of lack of interest, sympathy and helpful coöperation with the laboring masses may truthfully be brought against the church, these charges do not, in my judgment, lie as against the ministers themselves. Their own history is against it. Their own traditions are alike in kind, even if they differ in degree, to those of the leaders of labor movements, and what is more important than either, the natural tendencies of the gospel itself ally them with those who work with their hands for the bread they eat. The elimination of ministers from the list of those who have had a decisive part in bringing about the advances which have already been achieved, would cut out many of the most important and influential figures in the whole history of the labor controversy.

David Swing was in the habit of saying that the sermon was the popular literature of the land. This remains, in the judgment of the present writer, substantially true still. The masses of mankind, whatever their practice, still feel that religion holds the key to all the troubles to which flesh is heir. And by a certain natural tendency, when the critical point in any difficulty is reached there is a turning toward some representative of the church, with the underlying feeling that if to the best judgments of the intelligence can be added the sanctions of religion, real progress has been made and justice is likely to be secured. It is, therefore, a matter of capital importance what the minister thinks about these things and what he holds to be the rational Christian attitude of a minister of the gospel toward those who create the labor question. And as concerning unionism or organized labor his opinion ought to be especially clear and unequivocal.

Organization always tends to obscure elementary principles. This is no less true when applied to universities, churches, labor unions or industrial corporations. Men acting in a body lose the sense of individual responsibility and are often ready to pass votes and incite actions which, as individuals, never would occur to them or which, if they did occur, would be instantly dismissed. The minister in Delaware who hinted at a possible justification of lynching, would never have uttered a single syllable if his own hand had been compelled to light the torch that set in flames the kerosene-drenched wretch whom a furious mob of savages burned in a manner which makes the Servian assassinations look humane and respectable. Nor is it likely that many of the citizens who took part in that shameful deed would have done so had they been compelled to assume individual responsibility for their acts. The collective passion for vengeance was stronger than the individual conscience calling for justice. Hence the fearful story.

What is thus true of mobs is true in corporations and labor unions. It is also true in ecclesiastical assemblies. Hence there is need in all organizations that those who compose them should be exceptionally careful to see that the collective expression of principle does not violate individual duty and obligation. For obviously no man can be immoral in a crowd and remain moral as an individual. A certain measure of expediency in matters non-moral of course must always prevail where there are many opinions to be reconciled. But this should never be the case where the nature of the action is

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moral. It is a somewhat singular fact that most of our labor organizations, while founded in response to the principles of the broadest democracy, have, in fact, acted under the principles of the narrowest autocracy. Often the walking delegate who, just at the present moment, is the great foe to all labor progress from whatever standpoint considered, acts as the judgment, conscience and moral sense of the whole industry or union which he represents. Now clearly nobody is wise enough, good enough or unselfish enough to hold such absolute sway over the destinies and happiness, not to say bread, of so many persons; least of all a person without previous discipline and long probation in matters that bear heavily on the well-being of men! Union men have again and again said to the present writer that they as individuals would never have taken the position which their business agents compelled them to take, but that they lacked a suitable and effective way of bringing their disapproval to bear upon the agent, till the damage was done.

Leadership in these organizations must carry with it immense consciousness of power. The great task is to create a similar sense of responsibility. The hardest lesson mankind has to learn is that of the temperate and just use of power. Labor unions will have endless trouble and will never attain their proper place in the estimation of right-thinking men till they have abolished the arbitrary and unrepresentative function of the walking delegate or curbed his authority sufficiently to render him the subject of revisionary control by a large portion of the body for which he speaks.

But even after this is done, the representative individual must be a person who will exercise great power. Then finally the question turns upon the moral principles of that particular individual. So that at the last the whole disposition of the matter will lie in the direction of the moral training of labor leadership. Where such leadership has attained moral maturity and is characterized by sobriety, dignity, self-control and freedom from the vengeful spirit, it is always influential and usually successful in its appeals for improvement, either in wages or conditions of labor. It is in a peculiar way the great privilege of the ministry to raise up such a leadership, to give to the youth in the church and congregation the personal guidance and assistance which will develop precisely the qualities which our labor unions need most at this time. In a similar fashion the ministry will, with fraternal counsel, keep before the leaders in all industrial controversies the fact that the spirit of justice must govern and that there can be no real progress in any other spirit.

The great need among the labor unions is of men with high moral capacity who have not lost their sympathies and patience either with their fellow-workers on the one hand or with their employers on the other. The reason why, in the past, the employers as a rule have succeeded oftener than the employes in their controversies has been for just this reason. Often they have succeeded where they ought to have failed, but so great is the power of self-control that it can often gain victories where defeat ought to be certain. Mr. Godkin, in one of his essays, "Who will pay the bills of Socialism?" asks: "How are you going to get men with the talent, the insight, the moral capability and the integrity to settle these questions, to give their services to the state, when they will be so much more richly rewarded by private corporations?" and in the answer to this question lies the kernel of the whole matter. The tendency is for the capable leaders of labor when they have themselves outgrown their associates in skill, sobriety and self-control, and consequently also in wealth and prosperity, to find more fruitful and rewarding service elsewhere. This leaves the labor organizations constantly at the mercy of an incapable leadership, often one without moral strength or integrity.

It is in the recognition of this fact that the power and opportunity of the Christian minister lies. He of all men must be patient with those who lack what he is expressly enjoined to teach. Fidelity to agreements, fair play always, and especially the spirit of kindness rather than that of revenge, these are his constant theme. He need not fear to command the fullest exercise of these qualities. He need not be afraid to call for them with the sternest emphasis. The technical side of controversies, ministers may with great discretion let alone. The clergymen in

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this country who are capable of giving valuable opinions on the technical elements of any industrial question are exceedingly few. But the humblest minister in the land not only may earnestly plead, but may with authority demand, that all those who listen to him shall be governed by the laws of righteousness and fair play. He will not let his emotions go on a sympathetic strike with the wage-earners when he knows that they have violated an agreement by which they ought to have stood, nor will he fail to ask justice when their cause is obviously just. The wisest leaders of labor movements want just this kind of appeal made for the sake of labor itself. The most just of the employers, whether as individuals or corporation presidents, desire the same. The one voice in the community which is able to speak honestly, freely and truthfully for all, is the voice of the minister of Jesus Christ. His is the only voice which is not likely to represent a fraction rather than the whole of humanity. Above the clamor of special interests and party pleading, his voice should ring out strongly and clearly for justice and fair-dealing between man and man.

This does not mean, however, that the minister's dealing with this and related questions shall have the neutral, nondescript character which commands the respect of nobody. It is one of the most commonplace of facts, that men universally honor a decisive opinion with which they do not agree rather than a colorless one at whose meaning one must guess. It means that the Christian clergyman shall be alert for the moral elements in every case and vocalize these, which without him are not likely to find a voice. There never was a labor leader who could fairly state the employer's side of a controversy. Nor has there ever been an employer who could fairly state the case for his striking or rebellious employes. These may be relied on to speak their respective parts with power and with emphasis. What is likely is, that neither will think first of justice, but first of victory. Public opinion, which is often dependent upon insufficient or fragmentary information, can not help much in the matter, but smarting from its own discomfort, usually adds to the din. It is impossible to avoid these things. The whole gamut of injunctions, counter-injunctions, arbitrations true and false, will all have to be gone through with before the period of sanity arrives. They represent a stage of development. But the clergyman should see to it that the features of the situation which are morally false shall be eliminated. The arbitrary labor tyrant with no sense of his responsibility should be frankly shown to be a tyrant and utterly disqualified to represent the mass of steady, honest men who toil for their daily bread. Get him out of the way and the workman and his employer are soon likely to agree. Teach that unions must have a morality such as a man may practice as an individual. Teach that employers must have patience with the crudities of the labor movement, remembering that there is hardly a statute looking toward better conditions for labor in this country which has not been passed over the opposition of men who ought to have known better than to cry, "interference with private rights," when humanity demanded the reform. But above all, let the labor world hear the note constantly of an insistent and determinate morality. In the steadiness and clearness of that note lies the hope of the whole matter. If that note be wavering, the minister's leadership can not endure.

If these paragraphs have seemed to indicate that this moral direction of public opinion, especially labor opinion, was required more by the laboring classes than by the employing classes, it is only because these have most to suffer from wrong leadership, especially leadership which has no integrity at its base. Observation and fellowship with the leaders of labor movements for many years have convinced the writer that many of the offensive and barbarous demonstrations of power by labor unions are due to incapable and unsound leadership rather than to any inherent disposition to do the wrong thing. To help in the creation and lifting into authority and power of a leadership which will prove all things and hold fast that which is good is a part of the duty which the minister owes to the community; for in the wise and peaceful settlement of the industrial question lies the satisfactory outcome of many other things vital to the happiness and prosperity of our people.

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THE MODERN AIRSHIP

BY

P. E. McDONNELL

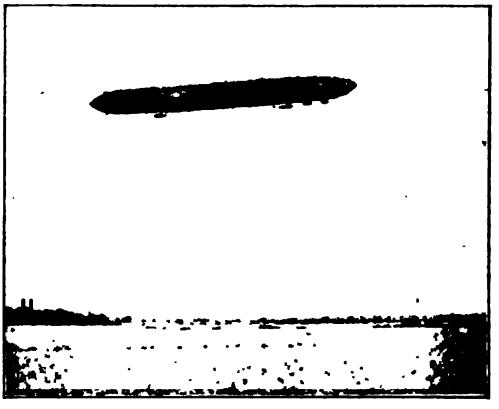
WE have discarded the bicycle, we are enjoying the automobile, we shall next exploit the airship. This restless movement is burlesqued in the *Aeronautische Mittheilungen* somewhat as follows:

The bicycle you have discarded,
You now ride an automobile,
And that you would trade for an airship,
But, dearest, I can't make the deal.

This past and present all know; that the future will bring the airship is proved by many infallible signs. Man, indomitable man, who has conquered transportation by land and sea, is now turning his restless eyes to the sky, convinced that he need not longer be left, baffled by the paradox of flight, to crawl on the ground while birds are soaring in air. War, commerce, science, art, sport and humanity join to impel him to solve this last and most difficult of all the problems of transportation. It will cost both men and money for decades to come, but will be cheap at the price; and, then, what on earth are men and money for, other than the progressive self-realization of man, which alone can bestow worth or even lend interest to his life and destiny? The only really insuperable obstacle to final success, I mean a well-grounded doubt of its possibility, has yielded during the last decades before the steady advance that has been made, so that now individual inventors and capitalists, clubs, journals and even governments are enthusiastically active in prosecuting to its end the solution of the fascinating problem of aerial flight.

It will be the purpose of this article to afford a working knowledge of a subject which must increasingly appeal to public attention, and is destined to afford the chief spectacle at the approaching Louisiana Purchase Exposition, where a prize of $100,000 will be awarded the aerial craft that best accomplishes certain evolutions, coupled with speed, over a prescribed course, as well as other prizes aggregating another $100,000 for minor achievements. The judges have conformed the requirements for winning the grand prize to the operation of the steerable balloon—of which Santos-Dumont's craft is a familiar example; but these are so easy of accomplishment that only to win would fall far short of successful aerial flight, and is already within reach of several aeronauts.

The various devices now in use for aerial flight fall roughly into three classes: balloons, airships and aeroplanes. The last term does not mean air-plane, as it might be supposed, but is derived from Greek *aer,* air, and *planos,* wandering, for which compare the word planet. Outside



ZEPPELIN'S AIRSHIP

these three classes would be craft with propellers mounted on vertical axes, as also those with flapping wings, but both have been abandoned after adequate trial.

It was no longer ago than 1766 that Henry Cavendish, an English chemist, discovered the remarkable lightness of hydrogen gas, then called inflammable air. It soon occurred to the Montgolfier Brothers, who were French papermakers, that, if enclosed in paper, this gas would afford a means of rising into the air. Trial, however, showed that the gas escaped this envelope; and, therefore, the heated air from burning straw and wool was used, and an ascent to fifteen hundred feet achieved in 1783. Later in the same

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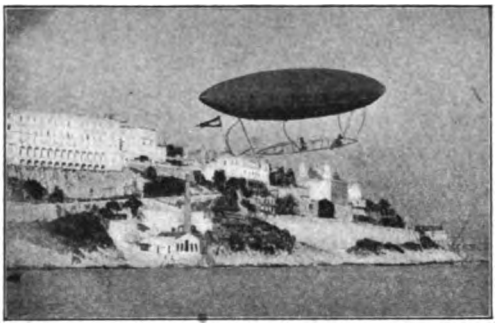

SANTOS-DUMONT'S AIRSHIP IN FLIGHT

year, Professor Charles used a silk envelope for his hydrogen, and thus sent up a small balloon in presence of half the population of Paris. Thenceforward progress was steady until in 1862 two English aeronauts, Messrs Coxwell and Glaisher, ascended seven miles, the former becoming insensible at five and one-half miles.

In 1875 M. Tissandier and two companions rose to a height of five and one-third miles, where the two companions died from asphyxiation. Of long-distance trips the record was made by the Centaure of Compte de la Vaulx, in competition at the Paris Exposition in 1900, when it reached Korostichev, in Russia, 1,193 miles from Paris, in thirty-six hours and forty-five minutes, making also an altitude of 18,810 feet.

In all these uses the free balloon can travel of course only with the wind. It neither feels the motion of this medium in which it is totally immersed, nor can it so much as steer itself out of any particular current, but must float with it like a dead fish in water. What the balloon needs, to function as a fish, is force within and fins and tail without; in other words, a motor, a propeller and a rudder. These machines convert the balloon into an airship, otherwise called a dirigible or steerable balloon. The term airship, though convenient and popular, is really a misnomer and likely to mislead the tyro by false analogies; for a ship, whether sailer or steamer, moves in two mediums —water and air—but an airship in only one—the air. Its close analogue is the equally modern and difficult submarine boat, in which man enters the fish's domain, while in the airship or interaerial boat he invades the bird's realm. This immersion in an extremely light medium is the commanding fact of the problem, and would render it hopeless but for another fact, namely, that the air is solid, if you do but beat it hard enough. Hence the first requisite for air craft of whatever kind is a powerful yet lightweight motor, a demand met to an astonishing degree by the petroleum or gasoline motor, which, fortunately for the progress of aeronautics, has already been evolved to meet the similar need of the automobile. The propeller most in use in air, as in water, is the screw, placed now fore, now aft, and now midway on both sides. When an airship is distinguished from a steerable balloon, it means that the gas-bag is stretched on a rigid frame which makes it possible to attach the propeller to it and therefore in the line of resistance, instead of to a frame merely suspended from the gas-bag. This rigid frame secures another advantage in the prevention of pockets at the head and ripples at the side of the gas-bag, both of which tend to form under speed pressure. The corresponding drawback of great increase in weight can be met only by great increase of capacity, which, fortunately for the future of the airship, increases as the cube of the dimensions, whereas the speed resistance increases only as the square. The conical stem and elongated body practicable in an airship will still further reduce speed resistance.

France has kept the lead in aeronautics that she obtained at the start, and among her experts are Captains Renard and Krebs, of the Aeronautical War Department, who have constructed an airship said to be capable of a speed of twenty-eight miles an hour, but the tests and structure of this war engine are alike rigorously guarded from publicity. Among public aeronauts in France, M. Santos-Dumont won notoriety by his frequent ascents near Paris and especially by his winning the Deutsch prize of $20,000—which he distributed to the poor and his workmen—in October, 1901. Starting from St. Cloud, he reached the Eiffel Tower, three and one-half miles distant, in nine minutes, rounded the tower at a distance of eighty yards, and landed at his starting point in another twenty-one minutes and forty seconds, having

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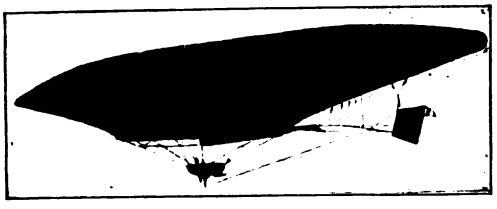
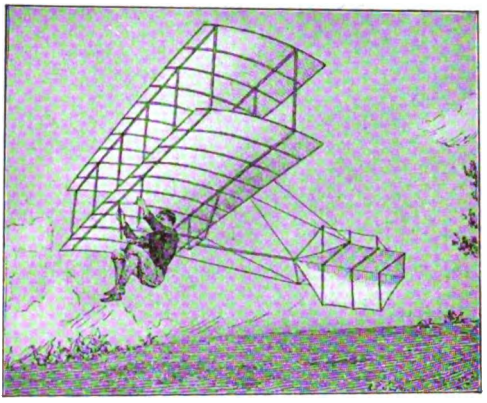
faced a wind three-quarters against him. The excess of forty seconds in time was disregarded. The No. 6 craft used here was little over one hundred feet long and provided with only a sixteen horse-power motor. The No. 7, already prepared for the St. Louis race, has a hydrogen gas-bag some two hundred feet long and twenty-four feet in diameter, which affords a lifting capacity of nearly one ton. From it hangs the framework which supports two motors, each of forty-five horse-power; a two-bladed propeller of wire and skin; a rudder; several balancing vessels, and the aeronaut. The speed in a calm is expected to be forty miles an hour. But this prize record has been twice broken by a craft constructed by the Lebaudy brothers. On May 8, 1903, under the guidance of M. Henri Julliot, it ran from Moissons to Mantes and return, a distance of twenty-three miles, in one hour and thirty-six minutes, with a wind averaging over sixteen miles an hour. On June 24 the same craft, guided this time by M.



LEBAUDY BROTHERS' AIRSHIP

Juchmès and two assistants, sailed from Moissons to Bonnières and return, a distance of sixty miles, in two hours and forty-six minutes. This trip still holds the record equally for distance, length of stay in the air, and speed—the last being over twenty-two miles an hour; and it surpasses the conditions made for the St. Louis prize in 1904.

The case in England corresponds with that in France. Here also the leading aeronaut, Dr. E. A. Barton, has been retained by the government and must perforce refrain from publishing the principles of his inventions. What is known will be described later. The Santos-Dumont of England is the equally intrepid and lucky Stanley Spencer. His craft also resembles that of the Brazilian, except that it carries its propeller at the stem instead of the stern, a position believed to aid the steering. Its motor is



CHANUTE SOARING PLANE

a thirty horse-power of the Simons petrol type. Mr. Spencer plans to compete for the St. Louis prize, and to return to England over the Atlantic, by means of a northwest wind current which prevails at an elevation of about ten thousand feet.

America also has a popular, practical and daring aeronaut in the person of Mr. Leo Stevens, who, as spectacular balloonist at an Atlantic seaside resort, acquired sufficient means to construct a small steerable balloon of the usual type, in which he has attained a speed of fourteen miles an hour. With the aid of a wealthy patron, he is now making further tests with a larger craft.

To remedy the defects of such steerable balloons, the airship proper provides a rigid frame for its gas-bag which can then be driven through the air without distortion. The craft of Mr. William Beedle, of Cape Town, Africa, has its untearable bag attached to the inside of six aluminum hoops, which are so attached to three eighty-foot steel tubes that the balloon can collapse when that is needed for refilling. The steering gear is in front, the propeller is at the rear and is driven by a twenty-eight horse-power motor. The loss of gas during an ascent will be made good from a tube of compressed gas, when a descent is needed. The most notable craft of this type was made by Count Zeppelin, an officer of the German army, and tested over Lake Constance, July 2, 1900, when it ran three and three-quarters miles in seventeen minutes, but was then disabled by a broken rudder. On October 15, it ascended two thousand feet, made a series of tacks and described

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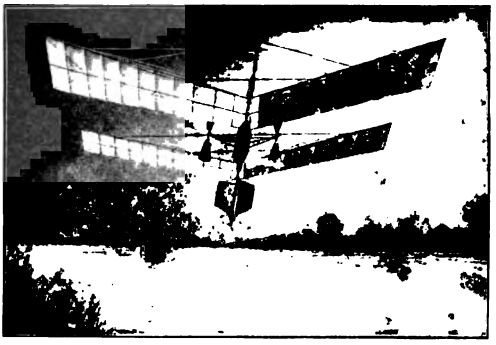

THE LANGLEY AERODROME

a circle of six miles circumference, with a wind blowing seven miles an hour. These tests proved steering, stability and equilibrium to be successful, but not speed; and expensive changes are now proposed. This is incomparably the largest air craft yet made, being 420 feet long and thirty-nine feet in diameter. Its external envelope rests on a framework of aluminum wire, within which are seventeen separate balloons, packed like lozenges in a box. Attached to this frame are two aluminum cars, each containing a sixteen horse-power motor which drive screw propellers.

Both balloons and airships are bodies lighter than air, and by reason of this quality have afforded man the only means hitherto realized of rising into that impalpable medium for longer than a few minutes. But birds, though heavier than air, not only rise into it, but soar in it with little or no effort; and very naturally man has thought of doing the same. His experiments in this direction antedated the invention of the balloon by several centuries; but the problem is both subtle and complex, and only since 1867 has he made progress in it by combining screw propellers with supporting planes, called aeroplanes by a Mr. Wenham in 1867. The studies of birds' flight made by J. B. Pettigrew, an English scientist, led to various devices, none of which achieved success.

In 1894 Sir Hiram Maxim, of England, tested an immense machine having four thousand square feet of aeroplane surface and engines of 363 horse-power, with small success; and he is still laboring at the problem. But most advance has been secured by the experiments of Professor S. P. Langley, of the Smithsonian Institution, Washington, since 1896, when he flew for three-quarters of a mile a model having seventy square feet of aeroplane with a one horse-power steam motor for two screw propellers. On August 8 a larger model with an eight horse-power naphtha motor was made to fly one-third of a mile when it was wrecked in the water. The same fate quickly befel the man-bearing aeroplane tried on October 7. Particulars of these experiments are withheld in the interests of the United States War Department, at whose expense they are being conducted, but a general idea of the craft can be gained from the accompanying illustration. An Austrian inventor of a similar machine had enough confidence in his craft to drive it himself as it rose from the surface of Lake Tullnerbach. It flew finely for some distance; but then suddenly turned turtle and plunged with Herr Kress into the lake. He was rescued, but the aeroplane could not be recovered. Besides these motor-driven craft, essays in flight have been made with aeroplanes impelled by the wind and gravity after an initial impulse has been given by the man they carry. The operator places himself under the light-weight machine on a hillside, facing the wind, and, keeping the front edge of the planes depressed, runs forward a little and launches himself on to the breeze by raising the front edge so as to catch the wind from beneath at a small angle of incidence, from two to four degrees. If surface and wind are adequate, the operator will sail forward on a descending course until within about ten feet of the ground, when he can tilt the planes more upward to slow the motion and finally drop lightly to earth. The German experimenter, Lilienthal, showed that slightly curved surfaces were superior to plane ones, and also reduced such gliding flight to regular practice. After making over two thousand glides safely, he was capsized by a gust of wind and killed in 1896. Pilcher, after making several hundred glides, was killed in the same way in 1899. Mr. O. Chanute, of Chicago, has devoted his experiments to securing automatic stability, and has thus far made over one thousand glides without mishap. Clearly the experimenter will do well to avoid a rocky road, and prefer, as

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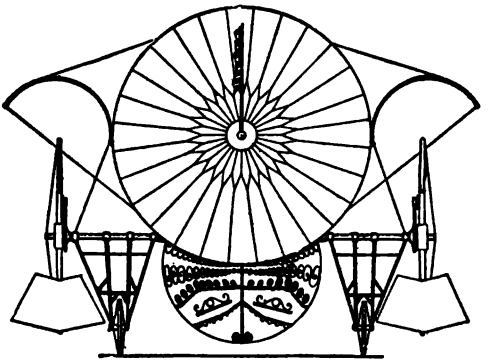
does Mr. Chanute, a dry sand hill for such trials. Just now research in this direction is being prosecuted in America with some success by the Brothers Wright, and Mr. Lamson.

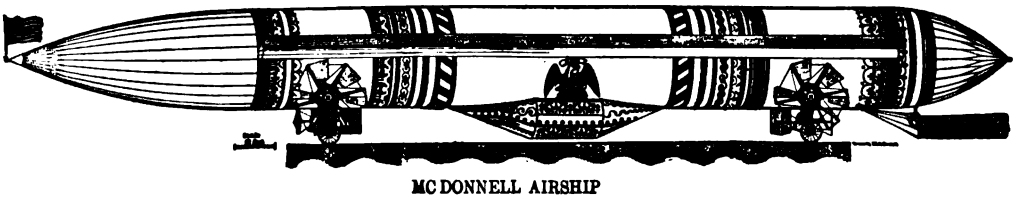
It is not strange that inventors have sought to combine the rival merits of the airship and aeroplane into one composite whole. This has been done by L'Hoste in France, Barton in England and Stanley in America. The craft of M. L'Hoste carries two aerocurves of aluminum below its gas bag, which is stretched on a rigid frame about a steel tubular axis. It also carries a small compensating balloon on either side, which can be raised or lowered to admit or exclude gas according as the gas expands or contracts when the craft rises or falls in the air. Now Mr. Hargrave, of Australia, has shown that beating wings are quite as efficient as the screw for both vertical and horizontal propulsion in air, and M. L'Hoste applied this principle in the shape of five pairs of wings, each revolving on a socket in a trochoid curve. Dr. E. A. Barton, mentioned above as retained by the British War Department, claims to have combined in his new airship all that is valuable in the machines of Santos-Dumont, Zeppelin, Langley and Maxim. The craft is 180 feet long, ten thousand pounds in weight and designed to carry seven or eight persons. Each of three pairs of propellers is driven by a forty-five horse-power petrol motor. An automatic water balancer keeps the vessel horizontal, and nine aeroplanes can be directed at various angles, so as to make the ship rise or fall. Dr. Barton plans to cross the Atlantic in such a craft and calculates that he could do it in four days. Another combination, but differing from the foregoing, is the craft now under construction by Mr. Stanley, in San Francisco, at the expense of a stock company. Sheets of aluminum are used to make a cylindrical body 116 feet long and fifty-six feet in diameter, which is divided lengthwise thirteen feet



END VIEW OF MC DONNELL AIRSHIP

from the keel into two compartments, the top one for holding six gas bags, the bottom one to contain motor, fuel and aeronauts. It is provided outside with a screw propeller at either end and two at the top on vertical axes to raise or lower the ship, besides three aeroplanes on either side to impart an upward or downward direction to forward motion. Mr. Stanley is another aeronaut who proposes to compete at the St. Louis Exposition, but how will he convey so gigantic a rigid body thither? Naturally by the air; but, if he can perform that preliminary feat, his credit will rise higher than if he won the prize. It is not an impossible, though a daring attempt, and *qui vivra verra.*

My own researches have led me to yet another combination of airship and aeroplane. I propose a tubular, bridged framework, three hundred feet long, covered with a gas-tight envelope, and divided into eighteen chambers, two of which open to the air and serve as expansion chambers to the adjoining gas-holding chambers which have movable partitions. This secures buoyancy equally on the earth and at every elevation without loss of gas or use of ballast, as in the usual steerable balloon. Peculiarly geared paddles will raise the ship vertically, hold it over any desired spot, turn it end for end in horizontal within its own length, move



MC DONNELL AIRSHIP

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it off in any direction, and finally return it to the starting point, without reversing motors, shafting, or propellers. These propellers with their motors are rigidly attached to the buoyant body, in order to act in the line of resistance as well as to dispense with impeding and insecure netting.

These facts indicate a world-wide, determined effort to achieve aerial navigation. In response to this situation, which may well call for unbounded interest, aeronautical clubs have sprung up in most European countries. Italy, Sweden and England have one each, while Germany, Austria and France have several each. Only the United States is too busy making money to take sufficient interest in this last problem of locomotion. Why not form a club in Chicago?

THE SECOND YEAR OF THE CARNEGIE INSTITUTION

BY

D. C. GILMAN

PRESIDENT

THE Carnegie Institution of Washington is now in the middle of the second year of its operations. The first year might be called a year of preliminary inquiry, counsel and organization. During the second year, a large body of coöperators in different parts of the country have been enlisted, and when the trustees assemble in the month of December, full reports will be laid before them regarding the various undertakings which have been promoted by the income of the fund.

It seems to be difficult for the public to understand the nature of this foundation. It differs completely from universities, colleges and learned societies. In some respects, it nearly resembles the Smithsonian Institution of Washington and the Royal Institution of Great Britain, but it differs essentially from them. It has no great museums like the Smithsonian, no important laboratories like the institution in London. It is without a faculty and without students in the ordinary use of those words.

Mr. Carnegie made his munificent gift for the advancement of knowledge, and not for the instruction of youth, except under extraordinary circumstances. Accordingly, diligent, varied and widespread inquiries have been made with respect to those lines of investigation that are most promising, and moderate allowances have been made in a great many different directions; among them, in astronomy, mathematics, physics, chemistry, biology, geology and economics. None of the grants has been of large amount, for the authorities have thought it wise to ascertain by gradual processes and by continued study the directions in which it may be best to employ the funds. Doubtless after the next meeting of the trustees their policy will be more definite and the institution will proceed from the period of organization and of inquiry to that of efficient service.

From time to time, reports have appeared in current periodicals with respect to the grants that have been made, but they are unofficial, as the institution has thought it better that announcements should proceed from the investigators themselves and not from the managers, for, in many cases, the recipients of grants do not care to reveal prematurely the line of work in which they are engaged. After progress has been made the results will be made known with the utmost publicity.

There is one feature in the work of the Carnegie Institution which is of widespread importance, and that is the selection of five and twenty "research assistants," to each of whom is given a sum of $1,000 or $1,200. These "research assistants" are for the most part young persons who have already been well trained and are prepared to prosecute definite lines of investigation under the guidance of older highly qualified leaders. These men are not allowed to be "assistants," in the ordinary use of that word, to the heads

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of laboratories and observatories, nor are they permitted to engage in instruction; they are independent attachés, who have shown ability and are eager to go forward, if encouraged, in well defined lines of scientific research. Notice of these opportunities was sent out last spring to universities and colleges, and nominations were received from every part of the country. These nominations were referred to specialists, whose recommendations were afterwards brought before the executive committee, and the five and twenty who appeared to be on the whole most promising, were appointed and set to work. Their development will be watched with the greatest interest by all who are interested in the development of youth in scientific researches. These research assistantships may be regarded as a kind of advanced fellowships, bestowed on a select company who are sufficiently forward to give promise of higher achievements.

Another important part of the work of the Carnegie Institution is the publication of memoirs so abstruse or so costly that they can not readily appear elsewhere. As a beginning, the fundamental science of mathematics received special recognition in a conclusion that the mathematical papers of an eminent American astronomer, Dr. George W. Hill, should be collected and given to the world. These writings will probably occupy three volumes quarto; they are already going through the press, and before long other publications will follow.

Thus far no appropriations have been made for the establishment of laboratories or even for the support of those which are now in existence, with a very few exceptions. A considerable allowance was made to the Marine Biological Station at Woods Holl, and two tables were also taken in the Naples Laboratory under Professor Dohrn. To these exceptions may be added the beginning of a botanical experiment station in an arid region of the West.

By the coöperation of the United States Geological Survey, competent geologists have been sent to the east of China in order that comparisons may be instituted with regard to the formations upon the east coast of northern Asia with those upon the northwestern part of our own territory. Another party has been engaged in studying the great sand deposits beyond the Caspian and Aral Seas. A competent scholar has been charged with the duty of inquiring into archæological researches now in progress in Crete, in Asia Minor, in Greece and other parts of the Levant, and he will recommend in due time to the trustees such a course of procedure as seems to him worth while in this interesting domain. Through the coöperation of the United States Labor Bureau and the American Economic Association, certain important economical studies have been taken up and several of the foremost scholars of the country have agreed to coöperate in the solution of problems pertaining to the financial, social and economical conditions of the United States. For the study of American archives, a bureau is about to be opened in Washington and placed in the charge of a highly qualified historian. Two or three younger scholars will be associated with him, and before long they will make clear to students of history what are the existing resources of the national capital, especially the extent and accessibility of the manuscripts in the different departments of the government. An important service has been rendered to the medical profession of the country by resuscitating the "Index Medicus," that masterly contribution to the progress of medicine maintained for some years at a loss and finally suspended. It now takes its place on a permanent basis and its revival has been heartily welcomed by the profession, through whom its benefits will in various ways be extended to the public at large.

These are only illustrations, informal and unofficial, of the activities of the Carnegie Institution. It will not be long before more complete announcements are made, but what is here stated is sufficient, perhaps, to indicate the variety and the importance of the investigations which have been promoted, and to enlist the coöperation and confidence of all who are desirous that this country should do its part in the advancement of knowledge. No reference has been made to special researches under way in physics, in chemistry, in geology, in botany and in many other subjects, because they are of too technical or limited character to interest the public at large.

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FOOTBALL MORALS

BY

EVERTS WRENN

SO remarkable is the growth of football in this country in the last few years that it bids fair to supplement baseball as our national sport; in fact, to-day it could be called America's national amateur sport. The remarkable interest and enthusiasm which has followed the game from its inception, appears greater this fall than ever before. Doubtless this year will break all records for the size of crowds at the games. It is apparent that a sport which occupies so prominent a position in this country should be very cordially nurtured, and those who have the interests of the game at heart are making strenuous efforts to eradicate the faults of the game and to improve it from the spectator's point of view.

A very important question regarding the game of football is one which affects all of our college sports, and that is, how to preserve a high moral standard. This subject suggests the supervising of coaches, who are especially conspicuous in the West. As great care should be taken in the selection of a coach, with reference to his moral effect on the students, as with regard to his ability to coach football. The supervision of this part of the sport should not get out of the hands of a board of control made up at least in part of representatives of the institution.

In the larger western colleges this has, generally speaking, been looked to of late, and the standard in the last ten years has been greatly improved. However, in some of the smaller institutions the personnel of the coaches bids fair to hurt the game. In fact, the value of the coach in the minds of some people seems to be greatly affected by the number of men he can influence to enter the institution where he is engaged. Now, although the means used may be honest, the temptation is always toward using undue influence. For this reason, if for no other, the athletic committee of every college should bend its efforts toward building up gradually a system of graduate coaches, until the number of graduates who are capable and able to lend intelligent assistance in the growth of football is such that professional coaches will no longer be needed. It is far better to find some enthusiastic graduate to undertake the onerous duties of head coach. This is not only important from the moral point of view, in my opinion, but eventually higher playing results can be attained.

The new rules are likely to have a good influence on the morals of the game. Two changes are of especial value: One is the death-blow to the sole-leather headgear which has been the cause of many of the accidents in the game, and the other is the rule preventing the kicker running his forwards on side; that is, running ahead to a line abreast of the ball which has just been kicked. This latter rule makes it easier for the umpire to prevent the roughing of the fullback after his kick, as it leaves no possible excuse for the unfair tactics which have been practiced in the past in this respect.

In the interest of honest umpiring I might add that the dropping of the rule which prevented tackling below the knees is good, as all obsolete rules should be eradicated in order to make it possible for the officials to interpret the rules literally. Too great stress can not be laid on this last point, because I believe that the literal interpretation of the rules by the officials, especially the umpire, is going to have more to do with the future success of football than any other one point. The trouble in the past has been that a general question has existed in the minds not only of the umpires but of the coaches themselves as to whether the umpire should use his discretion in many cases in the enforcement of rules; the idea being that the game would be marred by the great number of penalties which would be inflicted. Some even argue that if the rules were literally enforced, there would scarcely be a play completed without the umpire blowing his whistle.

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Judging from my own personal experience, this is absurd, as it is simply a question of coaching and training the player to observe the rules. No such leniency is shown in any other line of sport. If the players are taught that an infringement of the rules is as great a fault as missing a tackle in the open field, they soon learn to observe the rules absolutely.

Another great danger of this free interpretation of the rules is the latitude for judgment given the umpire. Umpiring is a hard enough task in itself without allowing the umpire to use his judgment as to whether he inflict a penalty or not. The game is improving every year in the strictness with which the rules are enforced, but it is high time that this question should be pushed to the limit and that an absolutely literal interpretation of the rules should be demanded. Why is it that there are practically no umpires who have remained popular any number of years? Some of the best sportsmen we have ever known in football have attempted to act as umpire, but with very few exceptions have come to grief. I believe the answer is that given above.

DENVER'S REJECTED CHARTER

BY

JAMES EDWARD LE ROSSIGNOL

PROFESSOR OF ECONOMICS, UNIVERSITY OF DENVER

EVER since the day of the bellicose Governor Waite, who trained his cannon upon the Denver city hall, the people of that modern Palmyra have felt an increasing desire for municipal independence and freedom from state control. They forget, perhaps, that in early times—some fifteen years ago—Denver enjoyed a considerable measure of home-rule, and that because of corruption and inefficiency, it was decided to take from the city fathers the control of the departments of public works, fire and police, and give it into the hands of commissions or boards appointed by the governor of the state.

But the last state of the city was thought to be worse than the first, and the remedy proposed was an almost complete separation from state control in the hope that municipal government would henceforth be regarded as business and not politics.

To this end an amendment to the state constitution, known as the "Rush Amendment," was submitted to the people of the state in November, 1902, and passed by a vote of 59,750 to 25,767, out of a total vote for governor of 186,820. This amendment was nominally endorsed by both Republicans and Democrats, because they were afraid to oppose it, and it is safe to say that of those who voted for it, the vast majority voted ignorantly, or in the belief that any kind of home rule was better than none at all.

The Rush Amendment provides for the creation of the "City and County of Denver," the consolidation of the school districts and the election of a charter convention to draw up a scheme of municipal government.

Among the other provisions of the amendment perhaps the most important is that which forbids the granting of any franchises in public ways without referring the matter to a vote of the "qualified tax-paying electors." It is this provision which is chiefly responsible for the defeat of the recently proposed charter, and since it must be incorporated in any charter that may be framed, it is likely to cause further trouble in the near future.

The Rush Amendment also compels any and all charter conventions to introduce the principles of initiative, referendum and recall, which are somewhat new and foreign to American political life, and have by no means, as yet, passed the experimental stage.

In the opinion of the writer, it would have been better for Denver if the Rush Amendment had never been adopted, but since it was made a part of the constitution of Colorado, it remained only to call a charter convention according to law.

The election for this first convention was held on June 2, 1903, and resulted in

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DAVID A. MOFFAT

the election of a non-partisan ticket of twenty-one of the leading citizens of Denver, chiefly lawyers, politicians and men of business. The very rich, the poor, the corporations, the saloons and the lower class of politicians were conspicuously unrepresented.

The convention began its sessions on June 9 and continued its arduous labors daily and nightly, Sundays excepted, until August 1. The work was done chiefly in committees. The completed charter was immediately published and during the ensuing seven weeks was vigorously discussed in public and private, in press and pulpit.

Among the chief provisions of the charter may be mentioned the following:

The elective officers to be mayor, treasurer, auditor, clerk, assessor, two judges of the municipal court and eleven councilmen elected at large.

The mayor to appoint the heads of all departments, removable at pleasure, and the civil service and election commissioners removable for cause.

Elective officers may be "recalled" upon petition of thirty per cent of the electors and a new election held at which the "recalled" officer may be a candidate.

Ballots not to contain the name of any political party and no straight tickets to be voted.

All subordinate officials placed under civil service rules removable for cause by the civil service commission.

Water-works and other public utilities may be acquired by the means mentioned in the constitution.

No future franchise to be granted except upon vote of the tax-paying electors.

Franchises granted under the charter subject to amendments, alterations or repeal.

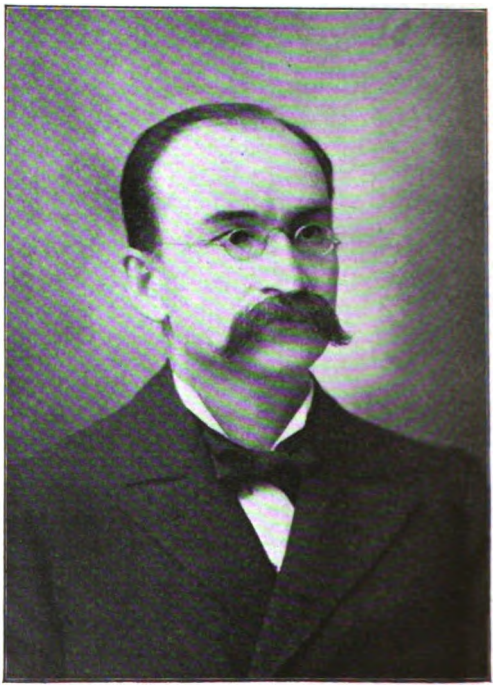
Liquor license fees to be at least $1,000.

No female allowed in saloons and wine-rooms.

General taxation not to exceed 15 mills on the dollar, except in case of emergency.

No indebtedness to exceed three per cent of the assessed valuation of taxable property, except for the acquisition of public utilities.

The charter was supported by the *Rocky Mountain News,* the *Denver Republican,* the Republican executive committee, the Ministerial Alliance and by reformers in general, and by many people who thought it better than any other charter that could be secured. It was



J. WARNER MILLS
A Leading Advocate of Charter Reform

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DENVER'S CHARTER CONVENTION

opposed by the Denver *Post,* the Democratic executive committee, the corporations, the saloons, the office-holders and by many conservative people, who thought it too radical a departure from established customs and time-honored principles.

The great financial interests of Denver, headed by David A. Moffat, who has been closely connected with every form of enterprise in Colorado for the past forty years, bitterly opposed the charter because of the clauses relating to franchises. The Tramway Company and the new Denver & Northwestern Railway, otherwise known as the Moffat Road, were especially active in their opposition.

The election was held on September 22 and resulted in the defeat of the charter by a vote of about 21,000 to 14,000. There was much illegal voting throughout the city, particularly in the lower wards. Perhaps as many as seven thousand illegal votes were cast, but it is commonly thought that there were not so many.

The defeat of the charter was due to the fact that, while it secured the lukewarm friendship of influential classes of the people, it excited a bitter animosity in the minds of equally influential citizens whose financial interests were put in serious jeopardy. If the charter had offended only saloonkeepers and office-holders it might have been adopted, but against their power, combined with that of the leading banks and public service corporations, its case was well-nigh hopeless.

Perhaps it would have been better had a less ideal but more feasible scheme been presented. Possibly such will be the charter prepared by the next convention, which should be elected within thirty days of September 22.

The character of the next charter convention it is impossible to foretell. Probably it will represent one of the political parties and include some friends of the corporations who will endeavor to evade, as far as possible, the obnoxious requirements of the Rush Amendment. That a thoroughly satisfactory charter will be produced is highly improbable. Meanwhile, the people of Denver are receiving a valuable and expensive lesson in municipal government.

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MEN OF THE MONTH

Prince Ferdinand I

The Royal Botanist Who Attempts to Rule Bulgaria

WHATEVER faults may be attributed to Prince Ferdinand I of Bulgaria, cowardice is not one of them. His very acceptance of the throne, made vacant by the abdication of Prince Alexander I, was an act of splendid daring, and ever since that time he has steadily braved death. Yet in a land of conspiracy and murder he is compelled to carry on affairs of state from a hiding place, so far has spread the reign of terror established by the Macedonian Revolutionary Committee —or shall we say Russia—who would throw off the Turkish yoke. Required by law to reside in Bulgaria, Ferdinand returned from his recent foreign travel, under pressure probably from Austria and Russia, only to take refuge in the castle of Euxinograd because his refusal to declare war on Turkey made it unsafe for him to take up his abode in his palace at Sofia. He has sent his children to his estate in Hungary so as not to expose them to the perils he must face, and he himself keeps his steam yacht moored off the private wharf of the castle, with banked fires, always ready for a sudden flight.

Prince Ferdinand Maximilian Karl Leopold Laria, born at Vienna February 26, 1861, is the son of Prince Augustus of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha, who died in 1881, and of the Princess Clementine of Bourbon-Orleans, a daughter of Louis Philippe. Great care was given to his education and every encouragement offered to the taste for natural history that he showed at an early age. He is joint author of a scientific treatise *Itinera Principium S. Coburgi,* containing the results of botanical observations made by himself and his brother during a visit to Brazil in 1879. He was serving in the Austrian army as lieutenant in the Eleventh Regiment of Hussars, in garrison in Hungary, when on July 7, 1887, he was elected Prince of Bulgaria by the unanimous vote of the Grand Sobranje (Bulgarian National Assembly) in session at Tirnova. No sooner was he proclaimed (August 14, 1887) than the Sultan refused to sanction his election, having positive information that the powers signatory to the Treaty of Berlin would refuse their sanction as well. For four years Ferdinand I occupied in Bulgaria the irregular position of a prince in fact, but not recognized by the governments to whose approval his election should have been subject. During this time he intrusted the direction of affairs to the Bulgarian Bismarck, M. Stefan Stambuloff, the president of

PRINCE FERDINAND, OF BULGARIA

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the council of ministers. Despite the hostility of Russia and England the new government balanced its budget, succeeded in placing foreign loans for the construction of railroads, and paid regularly to the Porte the tribute owed by Eastern Roumelia, which province had been annexed to Bulgaria.

For seven years the royal botanist and his prime minister were the center of an international melodrama. Russian spies plotting revolution were arrested and shot, their Bulgarian sympathizers were rigorously punished, conspirators watched over conspirators until Ferdinand's situation became impossible. Either Stambuloff or his throne had to be sacrificed. He chose the latter and dismissed the prime minister. Within a year Stambuloff's property had been confiscated and he himself had been assassinated. Whether or not Ferdinand was party to his death will always be a matter of dispute. Russia's share is hardly as doubtful. At all events since that time Russian influence has been growing daily more powerful. And to-day Russia and Ferdinand are two factors in something more than a mere national crisis. Unless all signs fail it will be Russia and not Ferdinand who will decide the future of the little turbulent state.

Lucius Fayette Clark Garvin

Democratic Nominee for Governor of Rhode Island

ON October 1 the Rhode Island Democratic convention renominated for the third successive year, Dr. Lucius F. C. Garvin. In 1901 he was defeated by a vote of 25,575 to 19,038. In 1902 a rival leader, Mayor Fitzgerald of Pawtucket, who had made the second city of the state a Democratic stronghold, sought the nomination, and Dr. Garvin was renominated only after a hot contest. He was elected by a vote of 32,279 to 24,541, the only Democrat that year elected to a gubernatorial chair in the northern states, receiving the largest vote ever cast for any governor in Rhode Island.

What has made this village doctor the leader, without a rival, of his own party, and the first candidate for twenty years able to defeat the skilled politicians of the dominant party? Why have the common people of the state so generally taken to their hearts "honest Dr. Garvin"?

GOVERNOR L. F. C. GARVIN

Lucius F. C. Garvin was born in Knoxville, Tennessee, November 13, 1841. His father, James Garvin, of Vermont, was professor in East Tennessee University. The son prepared for college at a Friends' School in Greensboro, North Carolina, and graduated from Amherst in 1862. He served in the Civil War as a private in the Fifty-first Massachusetts Volunteers. He graduated from Harvard Medical School in 1867 and began the practice of his profession in the factory village of Lonsdale, where he has since resided. He went into the homes of the people, curing their physical ills. It was but a short step for him to turn his attention to the ills and abuses of government under which they lived. Until 1876 he was a Republican. His political views changed because in national affairs he believed in the doctrine of free trade, equal rights to all and special privileges to none. He was also influenced by the fact that Rhode Island was an oligarchy instead of a republic, with a restricted suffrage based on property, and a representation so unfair that it rivaled or surpassed the rotten boroughs of England as they existed before the Reform Bill of 1832. For

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ADMIRAL ALEXIEFF

years Dr. Garvin conducted an agitation for equal rights and the extension of the suffrage to foreign-born citizens, thereby attracting attention to the unfair conditions and gradually building up a personal following.

In 1883 he was first elected to represent his town, Cumberland, in the General Assembly, and served for sixteen years, thirteen in the House and three in the Senate. During these years he was the chief advocate of reform in the Legislature. To him, largely, was due the passage of the ten-hour and ballot-reform laws, the amendment granting suffrage to the foreign-born, and similar legislation. He was thrice the nominee for Congress in the Second District. Defeated there, he has at last been thrice nominated and once elected as Governor.

His year in office has been less an administration than an agitation. Notwithstanding his overwhelming vote, the Republican party still controlled the Legislature. By a law passed in 1901 the Senate has the power of appointment; and as it is notoriously controlled by the "machine," the "boss" is virtually dictator. A majority of the Senate can be, and is, elected by less than five thousand votes. Shorn of all real executive power, most men would have sat still. Not so Dr. Garvin. By press and platform he has kept up a steady fire of attack on the political evils of the state. His friends have often been dismayed at his boldness. His political enemies have accused him of besmirching the fair name of the state. But he has kept both his temper and his course unflinchingly. He is undoubtedly a doctrinaire, not an opportunist. He stands for liberty rather than law. He advocates political more than moral reforms.

Admiral Alexieff

Russian Viceroy in the Far East

IN appointing a ruler over the new viceroyalty comprising the Amur district and Kuantung Province, with full control of the civil administration and the command of both the troops in the vice-royalty and the Russian fleet in the Pacific, the Czar chose a man whose capabilities he had learned by long personal contact. Admiral Alexieff, his appointee, a man of sixty years, is recognized as a born leader of men. He has the confidence and personal liking of the Czar and has long had the friendship of princes and men of affairs in Russia. Already, in the impending Russo-Japanese crisis over the Manchurian and Korean questions, his diplomatic and fighting qualities are probably to be put to the test as never before. Admiral Alexieff commanded the Russian man-of-war on which the Czarewitch Nicholas, now Emperor, voyaged to India, China and Japan, where a fanatical native attempted to assassinate the royal visitor.

Alexieff is well-known in American naval circles. He was one of four captains selected by the Russian government for eminent ability in 1878, during the Russo-Turkish War, and sent to the United States to purchase ships for Russia. The mission was an important one, as the four men were sent at a time when the war had reached a critical stage, and Great Britain was expected to take a hand in the conflict. They accompanied Semetschkin, who was chief of staff of Admiral Grand Duke Constantine. The party landed in Bar Harbor from the German steamer Cimbria. Over six hundred other Russian officers and sailors were on board. The four captains tried to make their mission public in such wise

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as to surround their visit with an air of mystery, probably for the purpose of arousing Britain's attention and alarm. This purpose was accomplished.

In the society of Philadelphia clubs, Alexieff made a very pleasant impression, and everywhere he has inspired respect personally as well as officially. Though wise and liberal, he has all the instincts of a fighting man of the first order. He is said to be so fond of playing Russian bridge that when his periodical fit is on, he is considered a dangerous man to defeat. A few years since, he came to the United States a second time in command of the Russian cruiser Africa, touching at New York and other ports. At other times he has passed through the United States when going home on leave of absence from his duties in the Pacific and in returning thither.

For some time Alexieff was naval attaché of the Muscovite embassy at Paris. During the war between Japan and China, he was in command of the Russian naval forces in the China seas, with the rank of rear-admiral. Since then, except for a short period spent in command of the Russian Black Sea fleet, he has been engaged altogether on the Pacific coast of Russia and China, with the rank of vice-admiral.

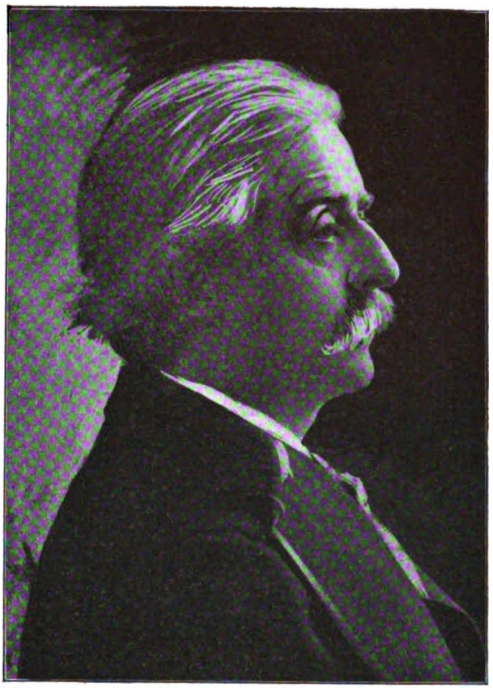
As an evidence of the Czar's friendship for Alexieff, it is stated on good authority that "a jeweled sword which Nicholas gave him would in itself build a line of steamships."

Henry Demarest Lloyd

Brilliant Publicist in the Cause of Social Reform

HENRY DEMAREST LLOYD was snatched away, September 28, in the midst, as it were, of one of the battles of the war he had waged for many years in the interests of the struggling classes. He had come from his summer home near Newport a month before to help the cause of municipal ownership, which is now agitating Chicago, and while delivering one of a series of addresses on this subject, he had a fatal attack of pneumonia.

Though a rich man himself, Mr. Lloyd made himself widely known, both in the United States and Europe, by writing books inimical to trusts and favorable to wage-earners. He was born in New York city, May 1, 1847, and was educated in



HENRY DEMAREST LLOYD

Columbia University. Later, he took a law course and was admitted to the New York bar in 1869. During the next three years he was secretary of the American Free Trade League, and also, as organizer of the Young Men's Municipal Reform Association, he did much to overthrow the notorious Tweed gang, by his first pamphlet, "Every Man His Own Voter." In the year 1873, we find him in Chicago, employed on the editorial staff of the Chicago *Tribune,* which paper he served for eight years. By magazine articles, lectures and personal labors among the masses, he came to be considered an authority on economic and sociological questions. He spent six months in New Zealand studying economic conditions there, and these investigations resulted in his books, "A Country Without Strikes" and "Newest England," both which appeared in 1900. Still better known are his earlier books, "A Strike of the Millionaires against Miners" and "Wealth against Commonwealth." This latter work, the greatest of his writings, is a daring arraignment of the Standard Oil Company's methods throughout its history. Though it seemed to challenge litigation, the author was never prosecuted.

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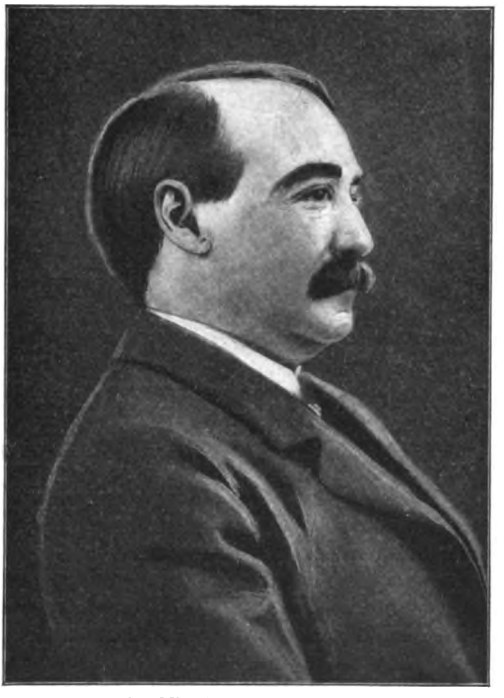
Charles Jerome Bonaparte

A Grand-Nephew of Napoleon Investigating Indian Frauds

WHEN President Roosevelt intimated, a few weeks ago, that a man would be chosen from private life to investigate the numerous charges of fraud against the Indians of Indian Territory, and to examine the conduct of officials who have charge of Indian affairs along the various frontiers, none could foresee that the private citizen to be thus honored would bear the illustrious name of Bonaparte.

Mr. Bonaparte's appointment recalls a romantic but pathetic incident of the opening years of the past century. It will be remembered that Jerome, the youngest brother of Napoleon Bonaparte, was in the French naval service in the West Indies when he was recalled in 1803. As the port wherein his vessel lay was blockaded by British cruisers, he contrived to make his way to the United States. He there fell violently in love with Miss Elizabeth Patterson, the beautiful daughter of a wealthy Baltimore merchant, whom he married December 24, 1803. Jerome Bonaparte remained in America until 1805, when he sailed with his wife to Europe. But Napoleon, excessively displeased with the marriage, had passed a decree annulling it, and now declined to allow the lady to enter France. Accordingly, she took refuge in England, while Jerome went to Paris and finally yielded to his brother's imperious demand for a divorce. While Elizabeth Bonaparte Patterson was at Camberwell, England, she gave birth to a son, July 7, 1805, whom she named in honor of both his father and relentless uncle, Jerome Napoleon. She brought the boy back to Baltimore, where she lived until April 7, 1879. Jerome Napoleon Bonaparte-Patterson died in Baltimore, June 17, 1870, leaving two sons. The elder son, Jerome Napoleon Bonaparte, Jr., aspired to the military glory of his paternal ancestors. He entered the French service in 1854, at the age of twenty-two, and won distinction in the Crimean and Italian campaigns. He died at Pride's Crossing, Essex county, Massachusetts, September 4, 1893. The younger son, Charles Jerome Bonaparte, born at Baltimore June 9, 1851, is the subject of this sketch.



CHARLES JEROME BONAPARTE,
Appointed by the President to investigate Indian affairs

Mr. Charles Jerome Bonaparte was educated at Harvard University, whence he graduated with the class of 1871; and at the Harvard Law School, whence he graduated in 1874. Mr. Bonaparte has always been stanchly devoted to his native country. Ever since his graduation he has practiced law in Baltimore, where he is eminent in his profession. He has always been a leader in reform movements without, however, holding public office; though he came near entering the United States Senate in 1896 as the associate of Senator George L. Wellington. Although a Republican, he has never formed close ties with any faction of professional politicians. As one of the foremost advocates of the merit system in the national civil service, he has been a consistent fighter against all manner of spoils politics. He is a member of the Indian Commission, and President Roosevelt appointed him to prosecute the frauds in the Postal Department, the investigation of which recently closed with indictments against twenty-nine persons. For competent experience, therefore, and impartiality, a better choice could not have been made of a man to see that some sort of justice is done the Indians.

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THE MAKING OF TO-MORROW

HOW THE WORLD OF TO-DAY IS PREPARING
FOR THE WORLD OF TO-MORROW

Organized Labor in Farm Life

AS a principal industry of the United States, farming becomes a factor in the great labor problem. The solution of the labor difficulties which have arisen between farmer and farm-hand in recent years will unquestionably demand arbitration within a few years. The same trouble that has grown up between the miner and the mine-owners will break out in country life.

The farming section of this country is large and still expanding. There are nearly six million farms to-day, the average size of each being 140 acres. These farms are worth $20,000,000,000 and cover more than one-third of the area of the United States. The annual income of the farmers averages $5,000,000,000. There are one million or more men employed on the farms as ordinary day laborers, to say nothing of the owners who toil from daybreak until sunset. The extra "hands" are hired only about eight months in the year; the remainder of the time they are compelled to seek employment in the cities and elsewhere. The invention of modern machinery has not as yet reached the climax where farmers can run their harvest without extra men, although effort has been made to reduce the number of helpers to a mere trifle in comparison with the number needed in former years.

There are to-day five million day laborers in this country. One and one-fourth million belong to national trade unions, another million to trade unions not yet national in their scope, and the remainder comprise the army of unorganized labor. Within the past two years, from the ranks of the latter class there have been recruited a hundred thousand men who find employment in the fields during the harvest season. These men are the foundation of the Harvest Hands' Union, which promises to combat the farmers' wage scale before many years.

Organization of farm workers into national unions was undertaken two years ago by John Deam, a district organizer for the American Federation of Labor. He commenced in the wheat and mining section of Indiana, where farm hands had been encroaching upon the work of the union miners. The farm hands were then being paid $30 per month in that community, but after one season of "spreading the gospel," the federation had succeeded in getting two-thirds of the workers to join, and wages were raised to $40 per month on an eight-months' contract, or $2.50 per day during wheat, hay and corn harvesting.

In connection with the organization of farm hands into unions, a scale of wages befitting each community was arranged. The daily wage is not measured so much by its size, as by the products of the field. At the same time labor bureaus are organized in all of the heavy grain-growing communities and the distribution of harvest helpers is carried on systematically.

Under the arrangements now in vogue, each union is governed by local boards, who fix a scale of prices. A farmer in one township may be paying $2.50 per day for wheat shockers, while his neighbor in an adjoining township may be paying $2.25. The remedy is to have all farmers under one national scale, such as the united mine workers. One of the features which always cause the farm workers' union to be a menace to the farm owners is the inequality of crop production. No two fields yield the same amount of wheat each year, and during dry seasons the farmers will be unable to pay for outside help. The remedy for this lies partially in the fact that wages are to be governed under the national organization by the yield.

The farmers are willing, in sections of the Southwest, to accept the scale offered by the union—that is, the wages to be governed mainly by the size of the crop yield. Under this plan no price is set until after the work has been done. The

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NESQUALLY GLACIER, SOURCE OF NESQUALLY RIVER, MOUNT RAINIER
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farm hands of Kansas who belong to the union are accepting employment this year under such an agreement. This kind of an arrangement applies only to the harvesting crews.

The present scale of wages runs from $1.50 to $3 per day for the ordinary harvester, while those who are considered experts are often paid $5 per day. But a day's work is from sun to sun, not merely eight hours, unless there is a harvesters' union. Wages differ according to tasks. Some tasks are lighter than others. Binder drivers are classed as light workmen and the pay is $1.50 per day, while men who stack wheat, the most trying task of the harvest field, earn from $3 to $5. Corn huskers are paid $1.50 for ten hours' work. Wheat shockers earn $1.75, drivers of mowers in the hay field, $3.50, including team; haulers of grain, hay or water, $3 for man and team; feeders of threshing machines, engineers and those who measure grain are paid from $2.50 to $3.50 per day.

The profit made by the farmer on his cereal crops is sufficient to pay the union scale of from $2.50 to $3.50 per day. The cost of planting an acre of corn is $5.50. Of this, $2.70 goes to the workman. The average yield is thirty bushels per acre, and if sold at the average price the farmer more than doubles his money on the hire of his men. Wheat plowing and cutting cost $2.50 per acre. The average yield is eighteen bushels and the average price is sixty cents. Thus the profit of the farmer is equally as great on his wheat, while the pay of the men is but one-third of the actual cost of wheat production.

W. R. Draper.

Japanese Rescue Work in San Francisco

A QUIET but effective work has been organized in San Francisco for the rescue of Japanese women who have been enticed from their native country by procurers under promise of good positions and homes in America. Some surprising revelations have been made respecting the extent to which this nefarious business is being carried on. The better class of Japanese merchants and citizens are coöperating with the local Christian workers in the effort to bring offenders to justice. The case of Y. Yokoto, a Japanese merchant who was ordered deported by Commissioner of Immigration North, has attracted attention by reason of the appeal made to the authorities at Washington and the petition of several hundred Japanese citizens, urging his deportation. Yokoto's guilt was established and his appeal denied.

Harnessing Mount Rainier

MOUNT RAINIER, in the State of Washington, is nearly fifteen thousand feet high, capped by glaciers of more than one hundred square miles in extent. The mountain stands exposed to the warm winds that blow from the Pacific current, making the climate more moist, if possible, than that of the south of England. For countless generations the mass of ice has collected every winter on the slopes of the noble peak, varying in depth from one hundred to two thousand feet, and from the mountain, summer and winter, torrential streams pour off ceaselessly.

The electrical construction firm of Stone & Webster, of Boston, is now engaged in building a dam on the Puyallup river, which flows from the northern slope of the mountain, near where it emerges from the glaciers. The waters will be carried down a long flume to a

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ARCH OF CARBON GLACIER AND HEAD OF CARBON RIVER ON MOUNT RAINIER

deep forebay, whence from a head of nearly nine hundred feet two streams can be hurled upon an electrical power-house in a canyon below. The steel pipes that will carry the burden of water are four feet in diameter at the top, tapering to a nozzle of five inches at the bottom, and the stream issuing will come forth with a velocity of nearly three miles a minute. What such speed means can be appreciated only by one who has seen it. The water as it emerges presents the appearance of a solid bar of glass or ice. Falling upon the four big steel wheels in the power-house, it would instantly smash them were it not for a clever arrangement of buckets which receive the water and set the great wheels rotating at a velocity of 7,000 feet a minute, generating 20,000 horse-power, a power capable of raising 99,000 tons a foot the minute.

What can be done with this tremendous force developed from the shifting ice fields? That, of course, is the industrial part of the story. Along the shores of Puget Sound to the northward, extending far into British Columbia, is a chain of cities, rapidly growing, in all of which the electric lighting, the tram cars and various manufactories will owe their power to this engineering enterprise. After the electricity has been developed and "stepped up," as the electrician's phrase is, to high tension in the power-house it will be carried along fine copper wires to the city of Tacoma, nearly forty miles away, and to the other towns further up the valley. There it will be applied to so many uses that it may literally be said that the mountain is working for man.

And perhaps the best thing about this enterprise is that it will not in any way injure the noble Rainier, for the great flume, although it will carry a daily burden of 2,000,000 tons of water, will seem, so immense are the distances on the mountain, to be but a thin line produced along the verge of a hill. The huge power-house, too, will be hidden a thousand feet deep in a canyon, and the whole region, now created a forest reservation by the United States Government, will be quite un-

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spoiled by this commercial utilization of glacial power.

FREDERIC COBURN.

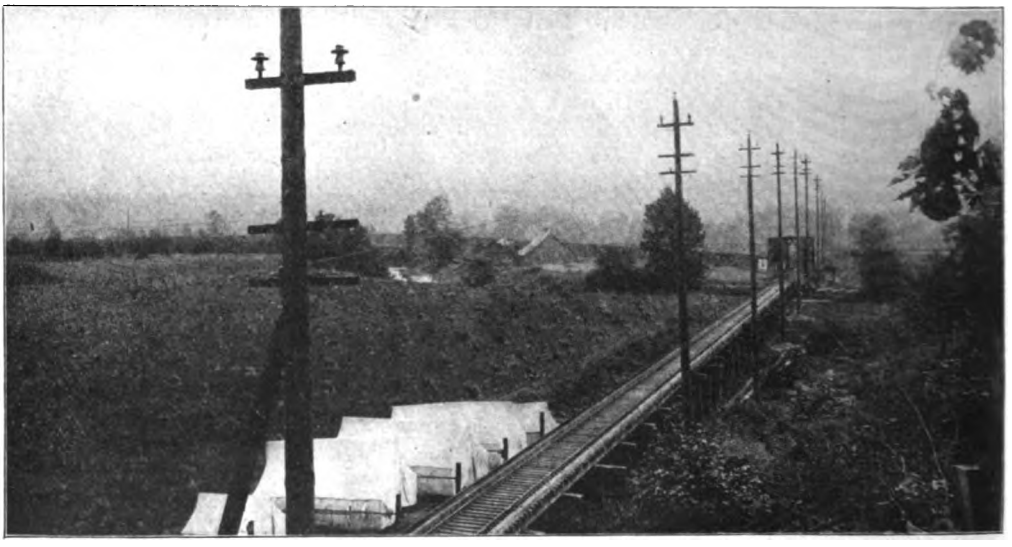
First Impressions of the Philippines

A CLOSE observer of Philippine affairs said to me recently: "It is hard to tell the truth about the Philippines." There are two reasons for this. First, it is not easy to find out the truth. Even in Manila very few people, excepting those who have been in the provinces, know the condition of things outside the city. Manila is not to the Philippines what Paris is to France. Manila is as quiet and orderly as an American city—more so, in fact. In the provinces one does not venture far without firearms. In the second place, men may come from the States with the best of intentions and the most earnest desire to know things as they are, but it will not be long before their personal feelings will sway their judgment. One easily gets homesick and discouraged, and he soon learns it is not a perfectly simple matter to resign a government position and get transportation home on a transport. In the local—and in this hot place somewhat misplaced—slang, they have "cold feet."

The insular government has been seriously annoyed by the resignation or sudden leaving of various employees. They have come over at the expense of the government, have not found conditions satisfactory, and within a few months have asked for transportation home. In some cases this has been granted, in others refused. Unfortunately, however, officials are not always courteous when some important reason, as that of health, demands that one leave the islands at once. It ought particularly to be remembered that to young Americans far from home and in an uncongenial climate courtesy and consideration are peculiarly pleasing.

This difficulty of the insular government has now been met by means of a contract which employees are required to sign before leaving the States. The contract requires one to remain in the employ of the government for two years. Traveling expenses are not refunded until the expiration of the contract and ten per cent of the salary is withheld each month until the withheld amount equals the amount borne by the government. This amount and one-half salary from San Francisco to Manila are paid after two years' satisfactory service.

A comment that one frequently hears in Manila is that there are very many incompetent Americans here. Conditions are so different from anything which Americans have experienced before that it would be difficult to prove or disprove the truth of the comment. Certainly



INTERURBAN RAILWAY BETWEEN SEATTLE AND TACOMA
To be run by glacier power

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there are many whom one sees and meets who do not impress one favorably. I do not know that this is any one's fault. Most Americans who are doing well at home and have no touch of adventure in their make-up, do not care to come to the Philippines to live. So it is not easy for the civil government to get good men, much as they are needed. One case after another, which has come to light lately, of shortage in accounts shows the need of good men. It is likely that when the civil service is better organized, when Manila seems less far away and when salaries have been raised, it will be easier to get first-rate men. For there is no better cure for homesickness than a good salary. Salaries paid to Americans now will not keep good men here long. Constant changes result and the public service suffers seriously.

There seems at the present time little encouragement for capital in the islands. This makes all the more interesting the fact that a franchise has been granted recently "to construct, maintain and operate an electric street railroad in Manila and its suburbs," and an electric light, heat and power system. The life of the franchise is fifty years; first and second class cars are to be run; fare in first-class is to be six cents, in second-class, five cents; two and one-half per cent of the gross earnings of the company is to be paid to the city; after twenty-five years the company may be required to remove its overhead wires; at the same time the city may, if it so desires, purchase the railroad property. It is interesting to read a franchise drawn by a commission which, as Mr. Roosevelt says and as most Americans in Manila believe, is "incorruptibly honest."

It is really surprising to see how many Americans one meets whose respect for Spain and the Spaniards is great. The Spaniards certainly understood the principle of colonial administration. It remains to be seen whether we understand it as well and whether our government is suited by its nature to such work. One thing is certain: the respect of people whom one must control can not be won by too familiar and friendly an attitude. This the Spaniards understood and this we are learning. I believe it is a difference of opinion on this point which is one reason that some men criticize and others support the civil commission. The criticism certainly is deep and widespread and as loud as each man thinks it wise to make it.

The Philippine Exposition Board is hard at work preparing the Philippine exhibit for St. Louis. It has a large number of men in the provinces making collections. These collections are continually arriving in Manila, and from now until January there will be shipments to St. Louis. This exhibit of products, industries and life will be undoubtedly the largest ever made from the islands. It will give visitors to the exposition an opportunity to learn more about the Philippines than most people could learn in a visit here of several weeks. I have no doubt the exhibit will get the attention it will well deserve. There will be several villages, where groups from different Philippine tribes will live and work as they do at home. They will have on sale various manufactures which can be seen in the making.

A Manila Resident.

A Ship-Brake to Prevent Collisions at Sea

THE Canadian government has equipped one of its vessels—the steamer Eureka, plying on inland waters—with a ship-brake. This appliance can both check the speed of a vessel and assist it in turning about in a limited shipway. In construction and method of attachment to a ship it resembles somewhat an ordinary rudder. The brake is placed on the sides of the hull, and extends downward from the extreme load-line of the vessel to the bilge-keel. The so-called gate consists of a stout plate of steel, heavily reinforced and hinged vertically to the vessel. Normally, when not in use, it is folded snugly to the side of the ship. A series of heavy steel struts are pivotally attached to the back of the gate near its outer edge, and also to a series of sliding plates which are arranged to move horizontally in covered ways, built into the structure of the hull. When the gate is folded forward against the side of the ship, the sliding plates are at the forward end of the covered ways; but when the gate is released and thrown open by the pressure of the water as the ship travels

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A CANADIAN SHIP-BRAKE
Courtesy of the *Scientific American*

forward, the sliding plates travel backward in their pockets and compress the water that is contained within the covered ways. At the rear end of these ways is a number of orifices, which allow the water to escape gradually as the gate, in opening, pushes the slides backward. When the brake is not in action, the forward edge of the gate is secured in place by a series of catches arranged on a vertical shaft. The rod on which the gate is hinged is provided with a bevel gear whereby the gate may be started to open. When it is desired to stop the vessel suddenly, as in the event of a collision, or when making a landing, the catches that hold the forward ends of the gate are released, and by means of the bevel gear, the gate is slightly opened. The pressure of the water then catches on the forward edge of the gate and swings it out into full-open position. Shock or jar is prevented by means of the water-cushions at the back of the slides. The movement of the brake can be controlled entirely either from the bridge or from the engine-room at will.

During a recent trial made in the St. Lawrence river, near Montreal, the Eureka was driven ahead at an indicated speed of eleven knots an hour. Then steam was shut off and, simultaneously, the brake on each side opened. The vessel came to a full stop before going another length. The brakes were then closed and the vessel sent ahead until the original rate of speed was attained. Then the engines were reversed and the brakes opened with the result that all headway ceased after going but fifty feet—about half the vessel's length. In maneuvering the Eureka at full speed, she was turned within her own length with one brake thrown open. No jar or vibration was observable by those on board. After the tests an examination of the hull and brake mechanism showed no harmful strain or other damage.

Carnegie's Benefactions in Scotland

As already reported in the newspapers, Mr. Andrew Carnegie has given a public park and a capital fund of £500,000 to trustees for his native town of Dunfermline, with a view to the introduction of "sweetness and light" into the lives of the toilers of his native place. It is estimated that the trust funds will produce a revenue of $12,000, which guarantees about $5 per head of the total population of Dunfermline. The money is not to be applied in relief of rates, or in providing anything that the law of the land makes provision for, and it is understood that the trustees are somewhat at a loss to imagine how they may usefully spend their huge revenue.

There is a growing sense in Scotland that Mr. Carnegie's monster benefactions have a pauperizing influence. Mean-souled people who have no need of the money go a long way about to secure it, while poorer people whom he would most desire to help continue to struggle rather than accept a charity. Only the other day, a jobbing gardener in Aberdeen, with a weekly wage of $7.50, adverting to the Carnegie fund, wrote to the newspapers: "There is many a poor man to whom some help of the kind would be a blessing indeed, but who has more consideration for his son than leave him open to be stigmatized as a 'charity boy.'" This is the stern stuff of which the self-respecting Scottish peasant is made.

CUTHBERT LENNOX.

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A COOKING CLASS FOR NEGRO WOMEN

A School for Training Domestic Servants

A CLERGYMAN of Philadelphia has opened a school for the training of girls for domestic service. The institution bears the imposing name of the Pennsylvania Institute of Domestic Science, and is at present established in a substantial stone building in one of the busiest streets of the Quaker City. A number of young colored women from various parts of the country are enrolled as students, and experts in the leading domestic arts comprise the faculty. Graduates from this novel institution will be expected to cook any dish required by an exacting mistress, to know without reference to a book the name of the various dishes in English and in French, and to know how to keep the kitchen in order. Classes are conducted not only in cooking, but in laundry work, millinery, dressmaking, domestic economy and servant girl etiquette. The last two are additions to the curriculum which were found necessary because of the inexperience of some of the material that presented itself for admission to the classes. "Domestic economy" means that the girls are taught how to do the marketing, and "servant girl etiquette" is the art of knowing how to behave in the position the girl hopes to fill. In the classes the girls were being taught how to open a door for a caller, how to receive the cards, what to do with them, how to approach a mistress, how to wait at table, etc.

The president of the institute, Rev. L. G. Jordan, hopes to establish similar schools in other cities, and believes he has found the only solution of the servant girl problem. In speaking of the work the faculty would do, he said:

"We have planned courses that are liberal, comprehensive and practical in

THE BUILDING OF THE INSTITUTE

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every detail. The industrious and progressive young woman who is sent out from this institute after completing her course will find it an easy matter to fill a place of responsibility with credit and satisfaction. We have fitted up the building as well as we could, and are meeting the expenses out of our private funds, depending upon the public for the perpetuity of the work. We have purchased the building, organized our board of directors and secured the services of the most competent instructors and assistants. Our board of directors includes some of the most honored and reliable men in our community." H. D. JONES.

Some New Phases of Southern Life

CONSPICUOUS among the changes born of the civil war is that which has come to the social life of the South. The wealthiest of a former period have become the poorest of the present. Of course, there are exceptions to this sweeping statement, but as a rule it is true. The original slaveowner, with his home of proverbial luxury and of traditional hospitality, was ill prepared for the sudden reverse of fortune which followed the capitulation of the southern armies. The condition into which this large and influential class was brought was as remote as possible from that to which it had for generations been accustomed. Originally they were lords and barons, independent and powerful; with the sudden shift they became as helpless, in many instances, as babes. Nor was it the loss of property alone to which this was due. Quite as largely was it attributable to their total lack of preparation for a change so radical. Accustomed only to direct and to command, they were unskilled in the minute execution of their own orders.

Consequently the sumptuous and hospitable mansion was abandoned and soon began to tumble into decay; the lands were sold in parcels, and plantations became farms; the spacious grounds about the baronial home of the southern planter were converted into patches of corn and cotton. Unable to grapple with fresh problems and to adjust himself to changed relations, his landed estates gradually slipped away from him. But, though forced to smaller homes with but the relics and fragments of past grandeur, the planters, as a class, continued the same refined gentlefolk in their poverty they had been in their wealth. As a rule, the most highly cultured and elegant people of the South were the former slaveowners.

On the other hand, the reversed conditions of southern institutions furnished a golden period to the middle class. This class owned but few slaves, and was accustomed to supplement the labors of the slave with their own exertions. It was a self-assertive and independent class, the sons and daughters of which mingled freely with those of the great landowners. Nor was intermarriage among the two classes infrequent. Far more flexible and practically resourceful, this class was not unused to the rough and tumble to which it was subjected by the reversal of southern affairs. Consequently, when the revolutionary crash came the people of the second class were prepared to grapple with the difficulties which ensued, and as ready to seize every passing advantage and turn it to practical account. The result is that, as a rule, the wealthiest among the people of the South to-day are representatives of the original middle class of society in that region.

Not until recent years was it thought proper for a woman to perform such labor as thousands are now doing in the South. In the former periods of southern history the slight efforts of southern women for self-maintenance were restricted to teaching. To be the queen of the home, skilled in the arts of domesticity as well as in social graces, to appear well on all occasions, both in manner and in conversation —these made the sum total of womanly duties in the days of the older South. Nothing was more remote from the original Southerner than the idea of an industrial school for women. Nothing was further removed from him than the thought of daughters from respectable homes, and widows who became self-dependent, resorting to the yardstick, the counting-room or to the clerkship in some office. The esteem in which woman was held by the original Southerner has never been surpassed. Nor has that regard been substantially diminished. It has only yielded to a more practical view. The

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esteem is unimpaired; it has only been so broadened as to honor woman as much as a bread-winner as the mistress of the parlor.

Another change for the better has come to the interior districts of the South. During a long period of southern history the cross-roads grocery was a stable institution. These haunts were nests of vice where, beyond the surveillance of any police regulation, drinking, fighting, gambling and other vices held high sway. These blotches of a past civilization are gone forever, and instead of the riotous doggery there has been planted the country schoolhouse, grouped about which is a tranquil and thrifty community.

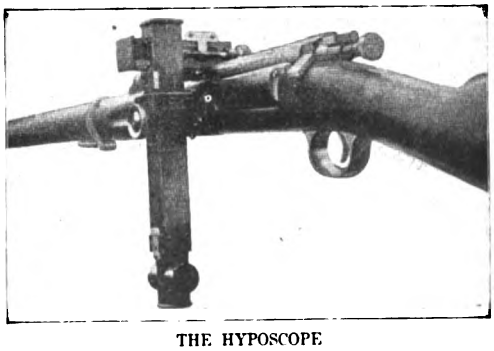
To even a casual observer it is clear that the politics of the South has become far more conservative in its tone within the last few years. This is due to two chief causes, namely: The removal of irritating elements from southern political life, and the change that has come to the industrial life of the South. The first of these placed the South in a defensive attitude, the second evoked its sentiments under normal conditions. The attitude maintained by the late President McKinley toward the South made him one of the most widely beloved of chief magistrates, and many southern men cast their ballots for him at the last presidential election.

The same conservatism and freedom of thought are not tolerated, however, in the religious sphere of the southern people. That is still hedged about by traditional and other influences. A modification of view concerning any tenet, or an amplification of view, are each looked upon as savoring of heresy. Not more obstructive are the rocky ramparts of the sea to the rolling waters, saying, "Thus far shalt thou go and no farther," than are the high-raised restrictions about the liberty of religious thought. Enlarged thought and liberal views which find expression in independent utterances which may be the result of studious investigation meet with but slight tolerance. No matter what his record be as a sincere Christian, no matter how thorough his investigation, or conclusive his proof, or exalted his scholarship, any departure from the beaten track brands such an one defective, and many who are incapable of sounding the depth of his meaning, raise the alarming cry that the foundations are in danger of being removed. He may be as orthodox as the most orthodox, but seeing a principle or doctrine from a different point of view from that with which it has been traditionally regarded for generations, exposes him to grave misapprehension. It is gravely urged, in some instances, and with a seeming and supposed spirit of generosity, that no objection to full liberty of utterance is opposed, provided the one urging such get beyond the pale of his cherished denomination and do so; but he must not presume to maintain his relations with such denomination and express any views at variance with those long held.

B. F. RILEY.

The Hyposcope

IN the field warfare of the future, riflemen, artillerymen and scouts will find their labors greatly facilitated and the element of personal danger reduced to a minimum by a little instrument, the invention of Mr. William Youlton, of Brighton, England. The hyposcope, as this instrument is called, is designed to enable a soldier to shoot with accurate aim over a breastwork or around a tree without exposing his head to the fire of the enemy. It consists of a tube with a short arm fitted at right angles with a longer arm; and within the tube is mounted a series of mirrors. One secures the hyposcope to the stock of one's rifle near the breech, laying the short arm across the barrel and letting the long arm hang at the side perpendicular to the direction of the rifle barrel. The light rays entering the tube from along the rifle barrel are reflected by the first mirror to a second in the elbow of the appli-



THE HYPOSCOPE
Courtesy of the *Scientific American*

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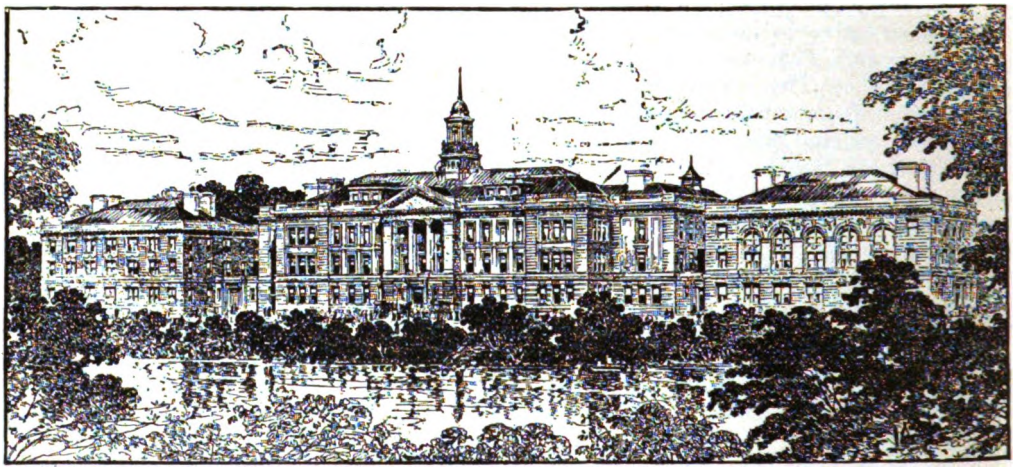
ance, which reflects the rays downward to the third mirror in the lower end of the tube, whence the light pases out at right angles to the eye. Thus the marksman can see the sights of his rifle through the eye-piece at the lower end of the long arm while holding his weapon above his head. Proper elevation for long-range shooting can be secured by means of a thumbscrew at the side of the long arm, which comprises two telescoping sections. By means of a fine scale in the upper section, the amount of elevation may be accurately determined. Another thumbscrew at the end of the short arm may be rotated to allow for windage by moving the mirror as far as is necessary to one side or the other. How far to move a mirror for different velocities and directions of the wind is indicated by a scale on this short arm. The whole very compact instrument weighs only about a pound. It may be kept from injury in a holster when not in use. However, the parts are not liable to be injured easily. Should a mirror be broken, a new one can be readily slipped into the old frame.

The hyposcope will be especially advantageous for use on Maxim guns, which in the Boer war were always the object of a concentrated fire. Aside from its advantages in connection with rifles and cannon, the same instrument will prove of great benefit in scouting. By applying it to the end of a field glass, the scout can watch the enemy undetected.

Training Women for Self-support

WHILE the subject of the proper education for women is still a matter upon which the doctors disagree, various experiments are being worked out in recent years which will undoubtedly throw light on the problem. One of the most interesting of these new experiments is the college founded in Boston by the bequest of the late John Simmons "to furnish to women instruction and training in such branches of art, science and industry as may be serviceable in enabling them to acquire a livelihood."

Simmons College hired a city house for a dormitory, office rooms in a business block near by for headquarters, and class rooms in the buildings of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology and opened for work with seventy students in the fall of 1902. For the first year courses were offered in the general departments of household economics, secretarial work, library training and science. Although the college is but a year old it has been able to secure a most valuable site bordering on the new Fenway Park in the Back Bay section of Boston. The proposed buildings will be architecturally beautiful and entirely suited to the college uses. Funds are now in hand for the erection of the central building of the group, shown in the accompanying drawing. The other buildings will follow as soon as possible.



BUILDING TO BE ERECTED FOR SIMMONS COLLEGE, BOSTON

E. H. CHANDLER.

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Christian Teachers in Japanese Government Schools

THERE is a growing demand for young men with a college training as teachers of English in the government higher schools and colleges of Japan. A few years ago the secretaries of the Young Men's Christian Association began to recommend candidates to fill such vacancies. The men selected were Christian young men from the United States, who made such a favorable impression upon the authorities in comparison with the teachers formerly employed that further applications began to be made. Arrangements were made with the secretaries in New York by means of which applications might be received from those wishing for such positions. Recommendations and general information are placed on file, so that upon the receipt of a cable from Japan, a man may at once be sent forward, and thus in a very brief time any vacancy may be filled. The success of this work, both from an educational and a Christian standpoint, has been most satisfactory. A remarkable amount of Christian work has been done in a very acceptable and efficient way. Many of these men have formed Bible classes of their students and have met them in their homes for study. These classes have often contained teachers of the school as well. The moral influence of these earnest Christian young men over their students has been immeasurable. Probably few missionaries are able to do more in the way of molding character than have these young men. In some cases the young teachers have been sent to interior towns, where they are the first and only foreigners to live in the town. They have been marked men, and coming not as avowedly Christian teachers, they have had a much greater influence than would a missionary have had, coming to the same town. Said a school director recently, when one of these men was leaving his position to go back to America for further study, "We are at present greatly troubled in Japan as to how to impart training in morals. It is the great need of our schools. We have no good text-books on the subject. Mr. ——— has come to our school and by a living example has shown us how this part of education is to be supplied." It is, however, a life full of temptation. The isolation of many of the men, their close association with a low grade of moral conditions, all combine to lower their ideals. There is great need of a very healthy tone of Christian living.

The summer school, held by the Y. M. C. A. in Japan, is a great aid toward that end. Here the men are gathered from their various posts and the strongest and most helpful influences are brought to bear on them to keep the standard of living and the moral purposes high. At the session this year at Arima, near Kobe, courses of Bible studies were given, as well as lectures in methods of teaching. Several of these young men have been so impressed with the value and importance of Christian work in Japan that they have gone home after a time to study for more efficient labor in this field. Several have gone to take theological courses, while some have gone to perfect themselves for higher positions as teachers of English literature in the colleges and universities.

J. L. DEARING.

The Jews and Sunday

SOME light on the possible issue of the observance of Sunday by the Jews comes from the intention of the Congregation of the Temple Beth El in Detroit. This congregation has maintained for some time past, during the time that Dr. Leo Franklin has been rabbi, a Bible school, meeting Sunday at 9 a.m., and continuing for two hours, after which an advanced class meets for an hour. Some form of Sunday worship was also carried on, a lecture and music being the features. This supplemental service, which has the approval of the entire congregation, is intended to meet the fact that the business opportunity and demands of Saturday are gradually alienating many of the people from any service. It seems almost inevitable that the prosperous and liberal Jews will come to make the day commonly observed the day for worship in their temples. The superiority of the Bible school of this congregation is not generally known. The children are graded and meet in good sized class rooms with competent and trained teachers, and do work systematically as they would do in the secular schools. Lecturers are engaged, conferences of the teachers held and the

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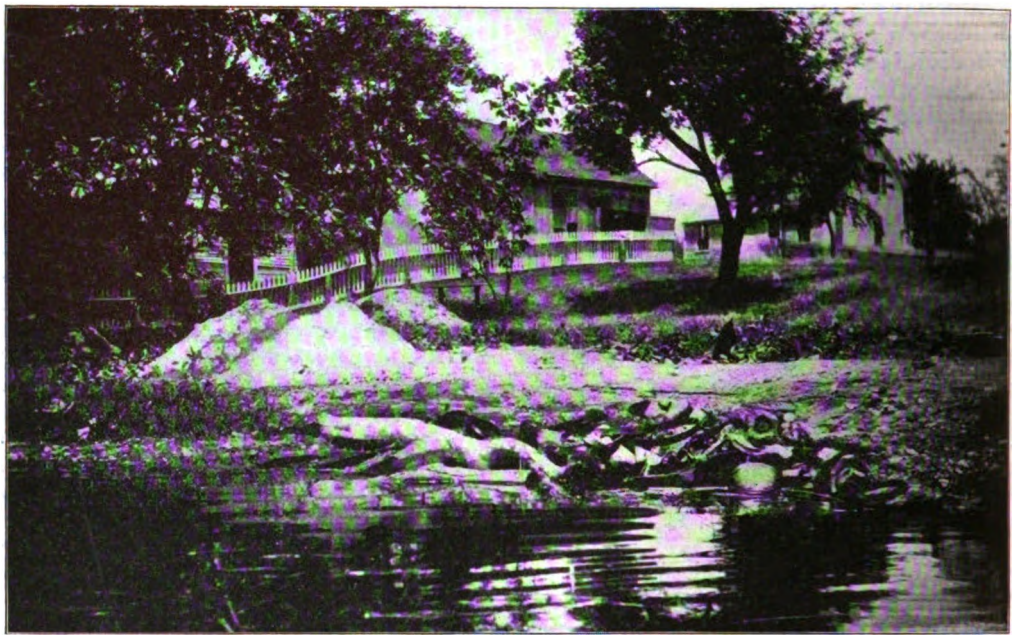

A VILLAGE IMPROVEMENT SOCIETY NEEDED

work is done along the most approved pedagogical lines. A library, opened all the week, a gymnasium in the basement, and other features of what are called institutional work, will also be maintained.

S. B. MEESER.

Local Option on Trial in Vermont

IN Vermont, where the local option law is receiving the first year's trial, the newspapers are conducting a debate on its merits, but the debate bears somewhat of the character of partisan politics. For this reason it is difficult to get fair summaries of public opinion as to the effect of the new law as compared with the former prohibitory law. Yet there is no doubt that the towns and cities which have voted for license and have first-class licenses have had a large increase in drunkenness. The *Herald*, which is published in Rutland, the home of P. W. Clement, who was the apostle of the new system, and which was the most influential organ of the local option movement, has published an editorial recently which scores the local commissioners for failure to do their duty in enforcing the law. It shows how kitchen bars are allowed to exist, and claims that drunkenness has increased, and that the license commissioners' raids are perfunctory. To this charge the commissioners have published a defense which alleges that they have no official knowledge that these things are true. They make no denial, however, of the facts alleged by the *Herald*.

The Development of Village Life

FIFTY years ago the first "village improvement society" was started in Stockbridge, Massachusetts. As there are now 130 such societies in 120 towns it has been thought desirable to establish some form of permanent federation in order to promote the growth of the community sentiment for a higher type of life. A conference has been held and many things of interest have become apparent. For instance, it is evident that "village improvement" no longer means simply planting trees and cleaning streets. It concerns itself with school gardens, the artistic use of shrubbery, more beautiful public buildings, statues, memorials. It secures water and river fronts for the benefit of the town. It stimulates the children in the study of nature.

Another new phase of village improvement may be seen in the new industries now springing up here and there, giving a new interest to people who have been

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A VILLAGE IMPROVEMENT SOCIETY AT WORK

unproductive. Eleven arts and crafts societies are now active in Massachusetts. The object is to teach village people how to produce with their hands and simple tools articles for household use and decoration which shall be both genuinely beautiful and thoroughly adapted to their purpose. Although, as Mrs. Madeleine Yale Wynne, herself an artist and artisan of rare ability, has cleverly said, "It is not claimed that the rug specific, or the basket remedy, or the pottery plaster will cure all the ills that a village is heir to," yet there is abundant proof of the new vitality which comes into a village life with the acquirement of a genuinely productive skill in some form of handicraft. The rugs and vegetable dyes of Deerfield and Greenfield, the baskets of Hingham, the lace of Ipswich, the homespun of Brewster are fast becoming famous and will restore something of the dignity which the ordinary cheap articles of machine manufacture have never succeeded in acquiring.

The Massachusetts Civic League, an organization of public-spirited citizens, chiefly devoted, hitherto, to influencing legislation for the improvement of the state's penal and charitable institutions, has taken the initiative in this broader work of federating all kinds of societies devoted to the improvement of village and town life. Such federation, when accomplished, will make possible a coöperation for large results which have hitherto been deemed unattainable.

E. H. CHANDLER.

A New Park for Minneapolis

MINNEAPOLIS is passing through a period of activity in public affairs. City bonds have just been well sold, paving and sewerage rapidly progress, and the parking of some of the prominent avenues, adding twenty feet to the grass borders between walk and curb, greatly enhances their beauty. There is also a vigorous movement to redeem several blocks in St. Anthony, near the exposition building, from neglect and immorality and to beautify the entire area in an open park. The great building is already renovated, and the order has gone forth that the disreputable houses must go, and is now being enforced. This is the beginning of the redemption, and a mass meeting of citizens has been held to push the reform, to which the mayor lends his coöperation. When this park shall be completed it will afford an imposing and pleasing frontispiece to all who enter the city by the Union Depot or pass through it over the steel arch bridge.

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Minneapolis has a good fifty miles of superb boulevards, a fine system of parks constantly improving, and its Lakewood cemetery compares favorably with those of many an older city, east or west. The fine river bluffs for which nature has done so much should receive the finishing touches of landscape art, so that the river could be seen from commanding standpoints and at its best.

L. H. HALLOCK.

A Cure for Cancer

BOTH the origin and the treatment of cancer are still among the most obscure branches of medical science. A Berlin university professor, Dr. Ernst von Leyden, has recently been experimenting with a preparation which has given some remarkable results in the treatment of cancer of the stomach. This compound is the invention of Dr. Julius Gnezda, and is called "akarkine." It is composed of albumen, phosphoric acid and trichloride of arsenic. It is a powder, insoluble in water but readily digested by the pancreatic juice. Akarkine is administered three times a day in gradually increasing doses. The relief experienced by patients suffering with cancer of the stomach has been marked. It is still uncertain in what way the compound acts upon the cancerous growth, but enough is known to show that there is definite interaction between cancerous tissues and arkakine. Whether the new remedy will prove of any avail in other cancers than those of the stomach, or will work a radical cure even in those cases, is still undetermined. Considering the prevalence and fatality of cancerous diseases it would seem that any alleged remedy would be speedily tested on a very large scale in many countries, and the matter decided promptly.

The Legality of Physicians' Fees

THE large, and to some judgments, extravagant fees charged by surgeons for operations on the human body periodically raises the question of the ethics of the doctor's fees. Most commonly the question is settled by the plea of the surgeon that his charge is scaled to the ability of the patient to pay, and those well able must stand the cost of those least able. or without any ability. This plea of using the well-to-do to make possible the charity to the poor has usually satisfied the conscience of the physician and the public; especially the public accustomed to communistic conceptions of justice. But when some wealthy man objects on the basis that an overcharge is made, the question forces itself on the conscience of the public with a sense that it has a right to be heard. It is a question of casuistry perhaps, but the principle that a man of wealth should be charged with the expense of the surgical operations of the poor whenever he himself is unfortunate enough to need an operation upon himself or family would be one difficult to establish in any other kind of service or business. Perhaps the wealthy ought to share his goods and bear the infirmities of the weak, but ordinarily he prefers to make the assessment himself and offer it as a charity, rather than have it assessed against him as a legitimate charge.

A judicial decision in Michigan has established a precedent in this matter. A surgeon performing an operation on the wife of a citizen, the patient not recovering from the operation, charged $600. In a jury trial, upon a suit to recover the fee which the citizen refused to pay, the judge charged the jury that compensation should be in proportion to the labor actually done and the benefits conferred. The verdict reducing this sum has aroused interest and discussion. No one would wish to withdraw from the credit of the noble physicians whose services are so often freely given to the poor without recompense. It is worth noting, however, that this is done mainly by the family physicians who rarely are known to charge such large fees. It is not essentially right that any one should be compelled against his will to contribute to the care of the poor needing surgical operation. On the other hand, every man of fine sense knows that a physician's service has elements of worth upon which no value can be put, because they are above money value, and every such man will gladly do in return all that his wealth will allow. The point here is that such charge is recoverable only on the basis of the patient's sense of the physician's worth, and not at law or in morals.

S. B. MEESER.

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THE WORLD'S THOUGHT

CRITICAL ESTIMATES OF ANSWERS TO LIVE QUESTIONS

Must America Fight Germany?

A DISTINGUISHED university professor who was sent abroad to secure the coöperation of European scholars in the scientific meetings at the St. Louis Exposition has recently said, in a newspaper interview, that German self-preservation demands calling a halt on American progress, and he is quoted as having said: "This does not mean trade hampering with tariff regulations. It means sooner or later shooting to kill." The professor insists that the only way of keeping peace with Germany is to maintain a navy stronger than hers.

Now it is undoubtedly true that the tone of the German press and the prevailing opinion among German manufacturers are decidedly hostile to the American commercial invasion. Nor is it altogether unreasonable. There has been established in Berlin an American chamber of commerce, composed chiefly of the representatives of American manufacturers and merchants. The very existence of an American commercial organization in the very capital of the empire is a constant irritation to the German manufacturers. What can be done in the way of restrictive legislation to minimize American aggressiveness will be done. More than this, Germany's interests in South America will sooner or later bring her to a direct issue with the Monroe Doctrine. This is well understood by even the most peaceful of American public men.

But all this hardly brings us in sight of war, or justifies us in assuming bellicose attitudes. The United States is more likely to be drawn into a war for the benefit of its foreign commerce. Certainly it will not enter upon a war with Germany on such grounds. There are too many Germans in America for that to be thought of. Then, too, there are millions of people in this country who will support with their means and their service a defensive war, or a war for the liberation of an oppressed people, who will never approve or assist a foreign war in defense of American commerce. In view of President Roosevelt's "big stick" policy and the unsettled state of affairs both in the South and the Far East, it is fair to ask ourselves: How far are we ready to go in defense of American commercial rights? Professor Small may be right in holding that we can not long make the governments of Europe believe that there is force back of our diplomatic threats unless we double or treble our navy. But are threats really the most powerful or the proper weapons for us to wield?

"Bad Taste"

WHEN the frauds in the Indian Territory were first made public, a prominent government official said that it was certainly "bad taste" for members of the Dawes Commission and other representatives of the government to engage in the business of trading in Indian lands. Now we have the assurance of a Chicago health officer that a meat inspector who had been making a profit by allowing condemned cattle to be sold for food has been guilty of "bad taste." The euphemism may yet become historic. Why use such coarse words as "graft," "boodle" or theft, when a situation can be so delicately and inoffensively suggested by such a charming phrase? The term implies that the official in question has offended against no statutory or moral obligation, but has shown a slight obliquity of vision in a matter where gentlemen may well differ among themselves.

There is a good deal of "bad taste" just now, from the highest to the lowest branches of our government. The Post-office Department and the Indian Bureau have found an epidemic of "bad taste" which seems to have been growing for

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some years. It almost seems as if plain notions of conscience and duty in the public service were going out of fashion, and as if the crudest days of the old spoils system had returned. There seems to be enough "bad taste" at Washington to warrant a revival of old-fashioned honesty which would call a spade a spade. Not the breach of good form, but a plain violation of the essential principles of law and morals is what we have to recognize in certain officials. And with twenty-nine men indicted for defrauding the Postal Department, it really seems as if the recognition had begun.

The State as a Foster Parent

IN a vigorous protest against the educational policy of the French government contained in a recent number of *Le Journal des Economistes*, Frederick Passy says, "Children, we are told, do not belong to their families, but to society, for the greater well-being of which they should be reared and moulded. Even M. Brisson, who is an intelligent and liberal man, recommends a scheme to M. Carnaud, whereby all children reared by the state (this goes without saying) shall be directed toward a profession and a career, according to the notes and inductions of their examiners, inspectors and administrators. The state, more able than the parents, and a better judge of children's vocations than those interested in them, shall say to each one according to its notes, 'You shall be a painter, and a great painter. You shall be a chemist; you, a mathematician; you, a joiner; you, a mason; you, a poet; to another, a doctor, a soldier, a farmer, a baker, or a mechanic.' And each being in his place and classified according to his merit, the maximum of effort of production and of talent will be obtained, and society will be perfect."

It is difficult for Americans to realize the tendency such a proposal exhibits. In many ways France is far enough from state socialism, but in education the republic is increasingly paternal. In the United States just now educational tendencies are in quite another direction. Electives in colleges, special courses in secondary schools, "individualism" and "interest" in primary schools leave the state little opportunity for determining its children's careers. And it is well that this is the case. We may run the risk of making our boys anarchists while we are developing their individualities, but at all events we are not in danger of making them automata. And in the individuality and self-reliance of its citizens lies the best wealth of our country.

Can a Man Who Hurries Be a Good Husband?

GERTRUDE ATHERTON, in the *Fortnightly Review*, has some sharp things to say about the American husband. It is apparently her opinion that the overbearing ways of the English husband have been too strongly emphasized, to the advantage of the more indulgent American. Her own opinion seems to be that the American man has no time to be a good husband. His perpetual hurry makes it impossible for him to practice those finer courtesies which adorn domestic life. After a graphic picture of the fierce rush for a seat in a car, in which city men engage twice a day, she asks how a man who permits himself to descend to the level of the brute twice in the twenty-four hours can be a good husband. In fact, this universal American hurry is pictured not merely as something eccentric and undesirable to an English mind, but as something uncouth and almost repulsive.

American readers will smile at the tone of such a criticism. Strange as it may seem to Gertrude Atherton, there are some American husbands who run for trains and even "hustle" for a seat who treat their wives and children as kindly as their English brethren. Nevertheless, there is an element of truth in the criticism. The American has a great deal to struggle against when, after the constant strain of the day's work, he tries to relax, to play the lover to his wife and to enter into the simple life of the home. That he so often succeeds in the attempt is a tribute not only to the essential manliness of the American man, but to the tact and patience of the American woman. We get along a great deal better than might be expected by an unsympathetic observer, but we could get along better if we gave more time to the effort. If President

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Roosevelt's favorite text-book, "The Simple Life," could be not merely talked about, but read and practiced by the men as well as the women of our land, the American husband would be a great deal happier and the American family would be saved many a jar.

Is France Becoming Inartistic?

FOR a century or more France has led the world in art, as Italy did in the fifteenth century. Now comes a writer, John N. Raphael, in the *New Liberal Review* for August, who questions French superiority in things artistic. He even holds that the French are no longer the politest nation in the world. Reverence is gone, and faith in things high and holy is disappearing. Democracy has blunted the finer feeling on which art thrived in other days. In a word, Frenchmen lack spirituality, and, along with the tendency to things sensual and material, have come the realistic schools of writers and painters. The stage is degraded. While in sculpture Rodin maintains worthily the highest standard of artistic attainment, the decadence in painting is marked. French pictures now appeal only to the senses, and the French music of to-day is quite valueless. "France has ceased," says Mr. Raphael, "to be either heart or brain, or a combination of the two, and has become mere stomach. Art appeals to her only through the senses, and she is, artistically, on the downward grade."

This change has not come suddenly. Thirty years ago Tennyson detected signs of unhealthiness in French art and deplored the demoralizing influences of French fiction, French drama and French painting of the nude. The dividing line between what is sensuous and what is sensual is not hard to pass, and if France is drifting from her moral moorings, she will certainly lose her preëminence in art. But of this we are by no means sure. The testimony of artists is all but unanimous as to the inspiration that is assured them in the French capital. It is hard to believe that Paris, more than other art centers, is free from the commercial spirit so fatal to art, but that is vastly different from believing that she is any more aesthetically degenerate than London or Munich. Probably one's opinion will rise and fall with the artistic company he keeps, or seeks to keep.

Law and Organized Labor

SOONER or later, legislation overtakes new economic conditions. Men have legally grown rich in the past by ways and means now illegal. Sooner or later, we shall control trusts, at least in their present form; we shall prevent mergers that threaten the public well-being, and we shall punish men who exploit society in ways for which there is no redress. New social conditions will then, it is true, again demand new legislation, but in as far as we have understood our conditions, we shall have legislation sufficient for our immediate dangers.

For nearly a generation this struggle between law and capital has been going on. Now we are seeing the beginnings of the same struggle between law and labor. Until to-day, legislation for the most part has been for the emancipation of the individual wage-earner and for his protection against his own weakness and his indifference to the needs of his wife and child. Henceforth, legislation must also, and perhaps more largely, protect society and capital from the labor union. It is no longer a matter of police protection against the violence that attends strikers. It is a question as to the accountability of organized labor to law. If a merging of corporations is illegal, what of the merging of labor unions? If the destruction of competition between railway corporations be unconstitutional, what of the exclusion of non-union workingmen from their occupations? If it be illegal for the employer to withhold wages, what of the employe's withholding of work? If a corporation can be sued for injury done its men, what as to the legal accountability of the men's unions for injury done by breaking contracts? If the "blacklist" is contrary to law, what as to a list of firms which organized labor "does not patronize?" Just at present organized labor, like organized capital, is taking advantage of a situation which is undefined by legislation. It, like trusts, demands publicity.

We shall presently discover just what is the legal status of great combinations

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of both capital and labor. If it should prove, as we expect it will be proved, that there is need of new legislation, both to empower and control such combinations, we have no doubt such legislation will be forthcoming. Unless all signs fail, this is the most vital issue which the American nation will face for a generation. Neither sort of combination can be destroyed, but the question of the power of the United States to control by law the labor union is to-day just as vital as the question as to its legal ability to control trusts. If unorganized individuals are to have no protection from the law, Socialism can not come too soon. Better the tyranny of all than the tyranny of some of our citizens.

Religion and Economics

REV. JOHN WATSON (Ian MacLaren), in a recent brochure, has called attention to the fact that the world's grasp upon things spiritual seems to be relaxing and that the church is losing its hold upon society. He prophesies, however, that there is shortly to come upon the world the greatest revival since that which swept across the Roman Empire in the early Christian era, and that the very rich and the very poor will especially feel its influence.

Such an expectation of a widespread revival in religious matters is by no means ill-founded. The world just now is running with the moral momentum given it by theologies which have practically disappeared. All thinking men are awakening to the fact that a new religious impulse is needed to carry the moral progress beyond its present point. After all has been said, the fact remains that people need religious faith to force them to self-sacrificing service. And on the other hand, any religious teaching that would appeal to the masses must lead to the better adjustment of economic conditions. Organized labor that fights capitalists on week days is hardly likely to kneel beside them on Sundays. Sooner or later, perhaps immediately, as Doctor Watson thinks, there will come a new statement of the eternal verities of religion in such a way as to give more force to the Golden Rule. There never was a time when men were so deeply interested in the unseen world as to-day. Only, men are also demanding that the world of spirit shall justify itself in the world of business. Religion may ultimately bring economic peace, but economic struggles are just now determining the line along which religion and ethics for a time must work.

China's Greatest Need

THE German railway from Kiao Chou to Chi Nan Fu, the capital of Shantung, is to be finished by another year. By that time there will probably have been made a beginning of the great trunk Tientsin-Chinkiang line, that can not fail to introduce great changes in the carrying trade of large areas, and to form a rapid route for reaching Peking. The important Lu Han route, from Peking to Hankow on the Yang-tzu river, of which the American line thence to Canton is really an extension, will soon be completed.

What effect these improvements will have it is too early to predict with precision. But it is increasingly evident that with the introduction of these appliances of "funded civilization," there is more and more difficulty in controlling the uses to which they are put by evil-disposed Chinese. All experience tends to make the Chinese feel that their ancient view that moral forces are incomparably superior to physical forces, is as true as ever. They instinctively perceive that the West acts upon a different theory, and that force is there deified, under the name of civilization, which is promoted by the sacred trade to which everything bows down, the end in view being gain. All this is well enough in itself, but unless we have some higher teaching to bestow upon the Chinese, it would doubtless be to their ultimate advantage if we had never entered their empire.

The Chinese do not lack, and never have lacked, civilization, nor philosophy, nor literature, nor a correct theory of morals. What they have lacked, and lack still, is the inward impulse to obey the laws the validity of which they have always clearly recognized. This we on our part know is to be gained only by the knowledge of that God whom the Chinese have ignored until he has been forgotten. China's real friends ought not to overlook this vital aspect of the case.

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BOOKS AND READING

The Outlook for the Literary Drama

By Ivan C. Waterbury

FOR many years the thoroughly commercialized stage of the English-speaking world has been proof against all importunity from the cultured minority for a drama with literary merit. The theatrical syndicates of Great Britain and the United States find it exceedingly profitable to truckle to a public that delights in nothing so much as to see its own follies and extravagances exploited in the society farce-comedy and the vicious society "problem play." Thus legitimate comedy and comic opera have been practically killed by vaudeville and those plotless, grotesque absurdities called musical comedies. The vicious society plays are produced by the job lot, notably by Pinero, Fitch and Belasco, the very wit of whose dialogue only serves to make the vices dealt with attractive and amusing. The works of these three men are turned out professedly just for the market, and represent no idealism whatever. Nor do they convey any message. None of their plays represent anything new, fresh, original, capable of further development; almost never is one of them presented during two successive seasons. The best that can be said of them is that they hold a mirror up to the nature of modern capitalistic society. A recent statement of a Russian critic about Pinero would apply in large measure to the whole trio:

"The English critics find in Pinero a whole Golconda of new ideas. But what are these ideas? I can deduce none but these: 'Nice people are to be met with only in the upper circles.' Pinero never shows us anybody who is not a marquis, lord, aristocrat, and so on. He has a decided weakness for these—it is Mrs. Grundy's worship of title. Again: 'The woman with a past can not make a good wife, no matter how devoted, sincere, refined and accomplished she may be. The past is a ghost which poisons the whole subsequent existence.' 'Outside of marriage there is no love.' 'The highest mission of woman is to love her husband and study the Bible.' This is really the whole capital with which Pinero made his advent in the dramatic art. His comedies are bright and skilful, but when he attempts to moralize he shows long ears."

The foregoing remarks, by the by, have especial bearing on Clyde Fitch's latest production, "The Frisky Mrs. Johnson," which Miss Amelia Bingham and Mr. Wilton Lackaye have just been playing. While the piece pretends to teach a moral, all the wit displayed therein tends to make ludicrous everything pertaining to virtue, to conjugal virtue in particular.

Though these three men, Arthur Wing Pinero, Clyde Fitch and David Belasco, are as well known as any other living English playwrights (heaven forbid that one call them dramatists!), it were blasphemous to compare them with the masters of continental Europe. Norway has her Björnson and Ibsen; Germany her Hauptmann and Sudermann; Italy her d'Annunzio; France her Rostand; even little Belgium has her Maeterlinck. Yet, though the English-speaking world can not at present boast a peer to these great continentals, there is one sincere English dramatist who is striving, against fearful odds, to bring poetry back into the English drama. It has been well said of Stephen Phillips, that he is the first English poet of recent centuries to unite the gift of poetic passion and poetic speech with the true instinct of the theater. This union in Mr. Phillips is undoubtedly owing to the fact that his stage instinct was developed by much experience as an actor in a most varied series of rôles. His three plays, "Paolo and Francesca" (1899), "Herod" (1900), and "Ulysses" (1902), though hardly to be considered great plays, undeniably possess high merits, poetical and histrionic. "Ulysses," now receiving its first presentations in the United States, is a dramatization of a great epic poem somewhat after the method of the best dramatizations of novels, but with more originality. The dramatization of leading novels is a hope-

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ful sign of the times. This dramatization of a poem marks a great stride forward. Presented by an able company headed by Mr. Tyrone Power, as Ulysses, and Miss Rose Coghlan, as Penelope, the play should serve as an example to influence managerial circles. This successful presentation of a poetical play is of so much more importance in the English-speaking world than it be would be in France, where the poetical drama has never, since the days of Corneille, Racine and Molière, been extinct, as it has been with us. James Sheridan Knowles revived it during the earlier half of the nineteenth century; but he was an isolated figure. No poetic school grew up around him, and his excellent pieces constituted, in one sense, a barren achievement. There is reason to believe that Mr. Phillips is not sowing seeds on equally sterile soil. The basis of this belief follows:

While the English drama has been declining, the English novel has been flourishing, until now it is the form in which the literary art finds its highest and fullest expression, outside of the poetry of Swinburne and Sir Edwin Arnold. People have long been pleasing their literary taste as far as possible by reading only, and resorting to the theater merely to gratify their taste for the spectacular. The Anglo-Saxon is and always has been a great reader, and the stage suffered largely on this account. Nevertheless, long deprivation has created in him a craving to see united once more those elements of thought and spectacle necessary to form a virile dramatic art.

ROBERT HERRICK
Author of "The Child"

STEPHEN PHILLIPS
Author of "David and Bathsheba"

There has never been a period when the clamor for the literary drama has been so strong as it is at present. The managers are beginning to find it necessary to heed the cry. They are beginning to comply with it slowly and with great caution. They are drawing a few literary plays from three principal sources: Translations from the continental masters above named, stage adaptations of novels of established popularity, and Shakespearean revivals. Thus, by taking things already in favor with the reading public here, or with the theatergoing public on the continent, the managers seek to avoid the financial risk of taking absolutely new plays by English or American writers. Stephen Phillips' case is a notable exception. The dramatization of the novel is of great importance, and is an almost necessary step in the revival of stage literature. Unfortunately, the technical development of the drama has been differentiating it more and more sharply from the narrative form. For the time being it has prevented the English play from participating to a greater degree in the effective expression of great emotions or in a direct discussion of the complicated issues of the epoch. The novel was created and developed apparently for this purpose. On the continent the austere technic of the drama has been adapted to

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the complex present conditions of social life. In the English-speaking world it seems necessary to adapt the novel to stage technic. Clumsy and even futile as this process often is, it marks an instructive transition in the history of the English stage. The aspiring English-speaking dramatists of the present generation have to learn, like those who laid the foundations for the great Elizabethan drama, from revivals, translations and adaptations. Managers are favoring the public by placing before it examples of this kind, and this fact should encourage original dramatic literature in English.

Books of the Season

By Wallace Rice

NEARLY every name known to literature among living authors seems to be represented in the host of books announced for the current publishing season. Fiction holds, as it has for many years and will for many more, the leading place in point of numbers and assured popularity, and here the chief energies of authors are expended; though there does not appear the promise of literary permanence exhibited under other heads. Poetry and the lyrical drama flourish amain, in spite of no apparent public or general interest. Holiday books grow more and more beautiful with each year, while their cost is reduced by improved methods of decoration and illustration. Biography and memoirs, travel and description, history, all teem with books of real importance. Out of thousands of volumes to be printed in these busy months it is possible to select only a small proportion for purposes of announcement, and these will be limited to those in which the reading public is likely to be most deeply interested.

Mrs. Edith Wharton, fairly at the head of American women writers, has written "Sanctuary," which will be eagerly awaited. "The Ambassadors," by Henry James, is of the same school. Robert W. Chambers, with a secure following, has another romance of the Franco-Prussian War, "The Maids of Paradise." Miss Alice Brown, whose power is steadily taking her to the foremost rank, has a book of smaller volume than last year, "Judgment." "He and Hecuba," by the Baroness von Hutton, will attract attention. Winston Churchill, covering the ground of American expansion west of the Alleghenies, has "The Crossing." F. Marion Crawford, always a literary artist, remains faithful to his Italy in "The Heart of Rome." Arthur T. Quiller-Couch, fully embarked in serious fictional work, writes "Hetty Wesley," of great promise.

EDITH WHARTON
Author of "Sanctuary"

Mrs. Margaret Deland will publish "Dr. Lavender's People." Mrs. Kate Douglas Wiggin's "Rebecca of Sunnybrook Farm" is a fascinating tale of New England life. Ouida, Mlle. de la Ramée, is said to be at her best in "Helianthus." Miss Beulah Marie Dix, of good repute for historical fiction, prints "Blount of Breckenhow." Christian Science, so called, is exploited by Mrs. Clara Louise Burnham for the second time in "Jewel." Mlle. Mathilde Serao, a writer of consequence, has "Sister Joan of the Cross." Mrs. Amelia E. Barr keeps within the bounds of history in "The Black Shilling." "The Deliverance" is by that sterling southern writer, Miss Ellen Glasgow. "The Rose of Joy" is the pleasant title of Miss Mary Findlater's new romance. "A Kidnapped Colony" indicates the field occupied by Mrs. Mary Raymond Shipman Andrews in her newest work. Quite the best of Margaret Horton Potter's (Mrs. Black's) published romances is "The Castle of Twilight," a charming study of feminine life in the Middle Ages. Mrs. Elia W. Peattie has a study of a peaceful frontier in "The Edge of Things." Sara Jeannette Duncan (Mrs. Everard Cotes) writes "The Pool in the Desert." Mrs. Mary Hallock Foote publishes a volume of short stories under the title of the first of them, "A Touch of the Sun." Miss Gwendolen Overton fulfils an earlier promise in "The Golden Chain." And John Oliver Hobbes (Mrs.

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WINSTON CHURCHILL
Author of "The Crossing"

Pearl Craigie) announces "The Vineyard," one of the best of her many novels.

William Dean Howells, at the head of American novelists, prints "Letters Home." John Fox's "Little Shepherd of Kingdom Come" adds to a reputation already acknowledged. Frank H. Spearman has two new books on the press, "The Close of the Day" and "The Daughter of a Magnate," the latter a study of railway folk. Cyrus Townsend Brady's "A Doctor of Philosophy" is his first character study, concerned with the negro question. Charles Major writes "A Forest Hearth." Robert Herrick has a study in heredity in "The Child." Frederick Palmer shows his cosmopolitan knowledge in "The Vagabond." "Little Stories" is rather more than its name implies, and is the work of Dr. Weir Mitchell. An admirable rendering of life in the French capital will be found in Guy Wetmore Carryl's "Zut and Other Parisians." The short stories of the late Frank Norris have been collected into a volume called "A Deal in Wheat." Paul Laurence Dunbar writes a romance of the slave life he pictures so well and calls it "In Old Plantation Days." Samuel Merwin has two books announced, "The Whip Hand" and "Hunch Badeau: His Little World," studies in real life. The excellent historical romances of Clinton Scollard are increased by "Count Falcon of the Eyrie." Elliott Flower finds another figure of fun in "Nurse Norah." Will Payne, a pioneer among American authors in selecting the world of commerce as a field for romance, writes "Dr. Salt," in his best manner. A book of yarns of real interest is Henry C. Rowland's "Sea Scamps."

Sea stories are evidently in great demand, with Joseph Conrad's "Falk," W. W. Jacobs's "Odd Craft," "The Vice-Admiral" of Roland Burnham Molineux, "The Way of the Sea" by Norman Duncan, and three or four others, including Cutcliffe Hyne's "McTodd." "The Literary Sense" is a collection of short studies in the lives of imaginary writers by E. Nesbit (Mrs. Hubert Bland). Gilbert K. Chesterton, of repute as a critic, has a first work of fiction in "The Napoleon of Notting Hill." This by no means exhausts the field of new fiction, but it serves to show how active the modern author is, and how difficult is the task of keeping abreast of even his better books.

Nothing is more likely to excite favorable comment than "The Life of William

SAMUEL MERWIN
Author of "The Whip Hand" and "Hunch Badeau: His Little World"

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Ewart Gladstone" by the Rt. Hon. John Morley, and of only less consequence is "The Life of John Fiske," told almost wholly in his own words. "Robert Morris, Patriot and Financier" is an important contribution to history, by Ellis P. Oberholtzer. "William Wetmore Story and His Friends" is by Henry James. Dr. Lyman Abbott writes "Henry Ward Beecher." J. T. Trowbridge's "My Own Story" is an admirable bit of autobiography. With it ranks Simon Newcomb's "Reminiscences of an Astronomer." Senator George F. Hoar's "Autobiography of Seventy Years" is really important. So, in an entirely different field, is "The Memoirs of Henry de Blowitz." Ernest Alfred Vizetelly makes an exhaustive study of a remarkable career, calling it "Emile Zola, Novelist and Reformer." "Marie Corelli, the Writer and Woman," is an account of a personality little known outside of her published works, by T. F. G. Coates. In various series, intended for the use of students and others, are a number of admirable short biographies.

Rudyard Kipling publishes his first book of verse since "The Seven Seas," calling it "The Five Nations." Stephen Phillips's "David and Bathsheba" is now to appear, after a year's delay. "The Singing Leaves" is by Miss Josephine Preston Peabody, in the very forefront of American women poets. "After Sunset" is the title of Mrs. Rosamund Marriott Watson's new volume. "Poems" is the title of Josephine Dodge Daskam's first book of serious verse. "In the Seven Woods" is composed of verse partly dramatic and partly lyrical, by William Butler Yeats, the head of the Irish Neo-Celtic revival. Alfred Austin, poet laureate, writes "Flodden Field," a blank verse tragedy. Miss Marie Corelli collects poems from her published works, with many additions, under the name of "Songs and Poems." "The Passing Show," by Miss Harriet Monroe, contains serious little poems in dramatic form. Nathaniel S. Shaler, of the first reputation as a man of science, shows a versatility known only to his intimates in "Elizabeth of England." "Ballads of Valor and Victory," by Clinton Scollard and another, is a collection of fifty original poems dealing with American historical subjects. "Ballads of New England History" is of the same sort within a more limited area, by Dr. Edward E. Hale, Arthur Hale, Edward E. Hale, Jr., Herbert D. Hale and Robert B. Hale, with a few additions from outside the circle of this gifted family. The Rev. Denis Wortman writes an epic, "The Divine Processional." Mrs. Katrina Trask breaks a long silence with "Christalan." And there are many more.

ELLEN GLASGOW
Author of "The Deliverance"

Important books of travel are numerous. Sven Hedin's "Central Asia and Thibet," W. J. Harding King's "Search for the Masked Tawareks," "The Native Tribes of the Northern Territory of Australia" by Baldwin Spencer and F. J. Gillen, Washington Vanderlip's "In Search of a Siberian Klondike" as written by Homer B. Hulbert, "World's Children" and "The Dunbar" written by Miss Dorothy Menpes and illustrated by

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MISS GWENDOLEN OVERTON
Author of "The Golden Chain"

Mortimer Menpes, and ten or twelve volumes of the Harriman expedition are examples of the more notable works in this field.

History has the important lectures of the late Lord Acton on the French Revolution and on general modern history, "History of the Civil War in the United States" by W. Birkbeck Wood and Colonel Edwards, two volumes of "The American Revolution" by the Rt. Hon. Sir George Otto Trevelyan, the third volume of Poultney Bigelow's "The German Struggle for Liberty," "Ireland Under English Rule" by Thomas Addis Emmet, Thomas C. Dawson's "The South American Republics," the three concluding volumes of "The Philippine Islands," Sir Walter Besant's "London in the Time of the Stuarts," Sir Gilbert Parker's "Old Quebec," James Schouler's "Eighty Years of Union," "The United States in Our Own Time" by Dr. E. Benjamin Andrews, "A Social History of Ancient Ireland" by P. W. Joyce, three volumes of John Tarver's translation of "Contemporary France" by Gabriel Hanotaux, Arthur Howard Noll's "From Empire to Republic: The Struggle for Constitutional Government in Mexico," Mrs. Latimer's translation of the "Talks of Napoleon at St. Helena" by General Baron Gourgaud, and many more.

NOTICES AND REVIEWS

Evolution of Industrial Society. By Richard T. Ely. New York: The Macmillan Company. Pp. 489. $1.25.

There is no man in the country better able to write on industrial matters than Professor Ely. He brings to his task not merely the knowledge of the scholar, but also practical experience. His present volume, while covering a very large field, has a unity of treatment which was partially lacking in his two somewhat similar books upon political economy. In this latest book he has in a singularly happy way combined the work of the sociologist with that of the economist, pure and simple. His chapter, for example, on the labor movement, contains not only an illuminating treatment of the social significance of the labor movement, but statistical and other information which it would be difficult otherwise for the general reader to gain. We would call especial attention to his chapter upon "Social Progress and Race Improvement." It has been so much the fashion of late to magnify the danger coming from the marriage of criminals and dependent classes, that Professor Ely's recognition of the actual checks upon such marriages is wholesomely corrective. Here, also, he has introduced much information concerning legislation and institutions for dependent and defective classes. In his treatment of the distribution of wealth, there is again a singularly happy balancing of facts. In any such matter there is always the possibility of over-statement and of the use of misleading statistics. In fact, as Professor Ely shows, statistics in the matter of distribution of wealth can only be approximately correct. The recent history of the stock market makes this perfectly evident. Any figures, for instance, showing the distribution of wealth a year ago would be singularly inaccurate to-day. It is a question whether the country is actually poorer than at that time. Individuals may have lost by the destruction of paper values, but society as a whole can hardly be said to have been an equal loser.

It will be apparent, therefore, that while Professor Ely has not attempted to produce a technical work, he has produced an exceedingly instructive and valuable one. It is written in a style that will not repel any intelligent man and should be read by every man who wishes to keep in touch with life as it actually is. Whoever will read Brooks' "Social Unrest" and this volume of Professor Ely's will be well prepared to form intelligent opinions on the great economic questions which now confront society.

A General History of Commerce. By William Clarence Webster. Boston: Ginn & Co. Pp. 526. $1.40.

While this book is intended primarily as a text-book for high schools and commercial courses in colleges, it makes very interesting reading for any one who cares to trace the influence of political history upon the progress of international trade. Professor Webster begins with a brief summary of ancient and mediæval commerce, and devotes the major portion of his

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book to the growth of trade in Europe and America during the last three centuries. Students of political history necessarily know more or less of commercial history, but they will find this new grouping of the facts both informing and helpful.

Practical Journalism. By Edwin L. Shuman. New York: D. Appleton & Co. Pp. 255. $1.25.

It is a happy coincidence that just as Mr. Pulitzer is founding a school for journalism, a successful newspaper editor should publish a text-book for instruction in journalism. Mr. Shuman's method is in itself a good illustration of his subject. The story of the education of the reporter, Brown, who is certainly no imaginary character, is a good specimen of teaching by precept and example. Even the man who never was a reporter and never expects to be one gets from it a new idea as to how the news with which he is every morning concerned is gathered. The chapter upon women in newspaper work should be read by all young women of literary aspirations. One sentence is worth quoting: "Young women with literary aspirations are on the wrong track when they seek places as reporters." Practical newspaper folk will welcome the admirable summary of copyright and libel laws with which the book closes.

GENERAL BARON GOURGAUD
Author of "Talks of Napoleon at St. Helena".

A History of Arabic Literature. By Clement Huart. New York: D. Appleton & Co. Pp. vi, 478. $1.25.

This new volume in Appleton's "Literatures of the World" series has been prepared by one of the most distinguished French Orientalists, Professor Huart, and translated from the French by Lady Mary Loyd. Professor Huart is secretary-interpreter for Oriental languages to the French government, and his knowledge of the subject is wide and exact. If any criticism can be passed upon his popular sketch of the Arabic literature, it is that in the attempt to present a fairly complete list of the Arabic writers of the Middle Ages he has unduly condensed the chapters dealing with the pre-Islamic poetry and with the Koran. The general reader would have preferred to find the works of the ancient Arabic poets treated at much greater length, because of the frequent references to their poems in general literature. The poets and philosophers of the Middle Ages are for the most part interesting only to Semitic scholars. The great number of these latter writers makes it necessary for the author to give what is little more than a list of names, dates and books, with very little quotation and description. But as a handbook of the subject for students of Oriental literature, the work will be most valuable. The last chapters in the book, on Arabic literature in the nineteenth century, are very interesting.

Talks of Napoleon at St. Helena with Gen. Baron Gourgaud. Translated by Elizabeth Wormeley Latimer. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. Pp. 292. $1.50.

Mrs. Latimer has done the reading public a real service in publishing this translation of those portions of General Gourgaud's diary (first published in 1898) that deal with Napoleon's reminiscences of his career. Among all the literature dealing with St. Helena, none is so trustworthy as this, and none shows Napoleon more realistically. Gourgaud was always faithful to his Emperor, despite his apparent quarrels, and in his diary he gives us a more truthful record of Napoleon's actual opinions than otherwise would be at our disposal. For this reason, if for no other, his journal is a thesaurus for the historian of the epoch 1789-1815. But Mrs. Latimer has done something more than play the part of translator. Nearly every page gives evidence of her painstaking study, and records some of her own most interesting reminiscences. There are not many persons still with us who, like her, saw the passage of the body of Napoleon to Des Invalides in 1840, and fewer still who, by parentage, are immediately related to the Napoleonic era. Thus, thanks to her, the journal has an additional value and is peculiarly interesting as well as historically valuable. Students and general readers alike will enjoy it.

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Ordered to China. Letters of Wilbur J. Chamberlin, written from China while under commission from the New York *Sun* during the Boxer uprising of 1900 and the international complications which followed. New York: Frederick A. Stokes Company. Pp. 340. $1.50.

As all readers of the *Sun* know, Mr. Chamberlin was one of the greatest of newspaper correspondents in America. These letters enable one to appreciate some of the secrets of his success. It is not often that the general reader learns much concerning the struggles of a foreign correspondent, and no one can read this volume without a new appreciation of those self-sacrificing, ambitious and untiring men who, like Mr. Chamberlin himself, keep the reading public informed of the day's events at the cost of their own lives.

Most of the facts the volume contains have been worked into current history. A few things are here which are not elsewhere, like the topical song dealing with the Chinese Empress. Then, too, Mr. Chamberlin's observations concerning loot have a certain vivacity which would be lacking in a dispatch. But it is the human element of the letters that really appeals to the reader, and the story of their author's work and death has the unity and the movement and the pathos of a story.

A word should be said also in appreciation of the care with which the editor, Mr. Chamberlin's sister, has performed her very delicate task. While every page shows the love of a father and a husband, in no way do the letters as published violate the intimacy of the family.

Chapters on English Meter. By Joseph B. Mayor. Cambridge University Press. New York; The Macmillan Company. Pp. xvi, 308. $0.50.

The first edition of Mr. Mayor's monograph on English meter appeared seventeen years ago. Since that time there has been much animated discussion in the reviews of some of the vexed questions therein treated. The work in particular of Mr. J. A. Symonds and Mr. Robert Bridges has made it necessary for Mr. Mayor in his second edition to introduce extensive alterations and additions. He takes issue with the theory held by such scholars as Mr. Bridges, recently advocated by Mr. Henry Van Dyke in a magazine article, which attempts to do away with formal metrical systems in the analysis of English verse and to substitute therefor a division of lines on the basis of the principal accents or stresses alone. Rejecting all the artifices and absurdities of the older writers who attempted to scan Shakespeare and Milton by the rules of Latin poetry, he maintains on the other hand that there are after all certain definite principles that hold good in all ordinary English meters. His statement of these principles and his analysis of Shakespeare and several of the Victorian poets are exceedingly helpful to the student of modern literature. The chapter on the English hexameter is also new in this edition, and contains some acute observations on this old but ever-interesting literary question. The book, though not put forth as an exhaustive text-book, is nevertheless the best introduction for the ordinary student of English poetry to the history and principles of the meter of our language.

The Recovery and Restatement of the Gospel. By Loran David Osborn, Ph.D. The University of Chicago Press. Pp. 253. $1.25 net.

This is an attempt to present the general results of the modern historical method of Bible study. The object of the book as expressed in the preface is "to show that the gospel of Jesus has become obscured through the process of its historical development, and that it is necessary to go back of this process in order to recover the gospel that he taught, and inasmuch as the world's culture has radically changed during the centuries since Christianity received its first dogmatic expression, this recovered gospel needs restatement in terms of modern thought and life." While the author does not always distinguish carefully between the earlier interpretations of the gospel of Christ and its corruptions; while he makes too sharp a contrast between faith and knowledge; and while he assumes too easily that there is in the present day a complete surrender of the authority of the Church and of belief in traditional theology, his work is of real value as an honest attempt to get back to the original sources and show what message for to-day is to be found in the primary facts upon which Christianity is based. And if from the attempted restatement of the gospel some things have been left out that ought to have been included, the writer has at least made Christ central in his system of thought. This book is probably the forerunner of many essays to apply to the original Christian documents the historical and critical methods of the nineteenth century.

The Crises of the Christ. By G. Campbell Morgan, D.D. Chicago: Fleming H. Revell Company. Pp. 450. $2 net.

This is Doctor Morgan's most pretentious book, and it is his best. It deals with a large subject in a large way. Its main fault is its voluminousness. Stripped of its original sermonic form and condensed into half its size, it would have given a better presentation of its subject. The prevailing tone of the book is irenic, but occasionally one comes across a bit of grating dogmatism. Not the least valuable thing in it is its strong and fresh exposition of Scripture.

The object which the writer sets before him is to "reveal the Jesus who in the details of the passing days was working a larger work and toward a mightier issue than a mere contemplation of the human life might seem to suggest." In accomplishing the work for which he came, the Christ passed through seven great crises, each of which "ushered in a new order of things in his work, crowning that of the past and creating the force for that which was to come." These seven crises are: the birth of Jesus, his baptism, temptation, transfiguration, crucifixion,

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resurrection and ascension. Through all these crises there is an onward movement toward the realization of "the primal divine intention," which is nothing less than the redemption of the entire sin-ruined race.

The Bondage of Ballinger. By Roswell Field. Chicago: Fleming H. Revell Company. Pp. 214.

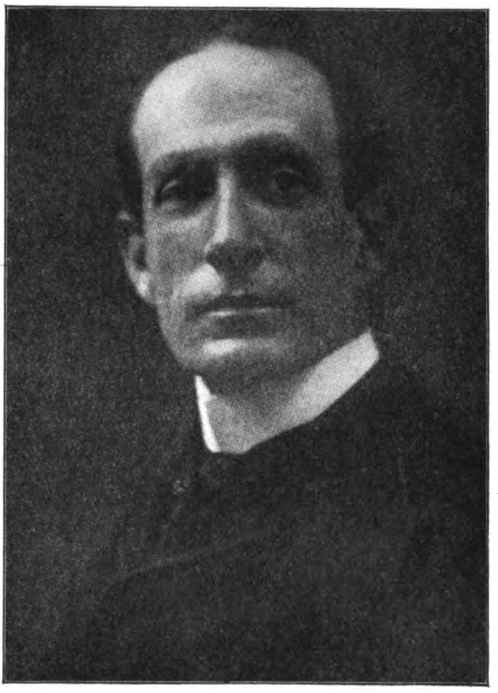
Ballinger is a bibliophile, and his bondage is the purchase of rare editions. The story Mr. Field has given could have been written only by another bibliophile who had tasted of the bondage. A printer and then as a bookseller who could not help keeping the rare books that might have brought prosperity if they had been sold, Thomas Ballinger is one of the most delightful characters in recent literature. The latter part of the story introduces the deliverers of Ballinger in the persons of a millionaire and his daughter. The account of the deliverance and the actions of the millionaire have the flavor of Dickens, and the entire story is a singularly appealing study of temperament which will be read with delight by all lovers of books.

The Fortunes of Fifi. By Molly Elliot Seawell. Indianapolis: Bobbs-Merrill Company. Pp. 239. $1.50.

This delightful little story is a historical novel only in the sense that historical persons like Napoleon I are introduced. It is really a little comedy centered about a charming, unconventional young girl, an actress in a fourth-rate theater. How she won one hundred thousand francs in a lottery; how she became engaged to a cold-blooded prig who wanted her fortune; how she gave away the fortune in order that she might marry a sturdy veteran of the imperial wars who was too modest to declare his love, make one of the most delightful stories.

The Maids of Paradise. By Robert W. Chambers. New York: Harper & Brothers. Pp. 338. $1.50.

Mr. Chambers, in this volume, again deals with the fall of the empire of Napoleon III. A melodramatic villain named Brockhurst plans to capture the crown jewels as they are being hurried out from France to save them from the Prussians. He is checkmated by the hero of the book, an American with a past, presumably heroic, who by a series of misfortunes became a member of the secret police of the Emperor, and when deprived of his position through the machinations of Brockhurst turns a circus performer. The story reaches its denouement at the little village of Paradise, where lives a most delightful countess. With an innocent enthusiasm for humanity, this young woman has been supporting communists, nihilists and various other Utopians, among whom Brockhurst has posed as a light of the first magnitude. The story of the downfall of the villain and the triumph of the hero is told in the style of a



ROSWELL FIELD
Author of "The Bondage of Ballinger"

genuine romance. In none of his books has Mr. Chambers shown a larger dramatic power or given us a hero whose heroism is less theatrical. The love story which runs obtrusively through the book is full of true sentiment. Mr. Chambers' descriptions of battle are singularly realistic and precise. The serious criticism that would probably be passed upon this volume is not its succession of dramatic incidents, for any romance must take the imagination by storm, but in the injury done the unity of the book by the subordinate story of the love affair of the beautiful German spy whom Mr. Chambers hesitates to punish properly and rescues unexpectedly by a matrimonial *tour de force.*

The Promotion of the Admiral. By Morley Roberts. Boston: L. C. Page & Co. Pp. 298. $1.50.

The stories here bound together are well worth reading. They lack the crude brutality of Sinful Peck, and some of the situations in the story of the admiral's promotion approach genuine humor. The most of the stories have already appeared in magazines, but in their new form they will well bear rereading. The publishers have given the book a striking cover.

Alain Tanger's Wife. By J. H. Foxall. Boston: L. C. Page & Co. Pp. 316. $1.50.

A charming love story, well spiced with incident. Most of the characters are admirably drawn, and the Gallic English well maintained.

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Eleanor Dayton. By Nathaniel Stephenson. New York: John Lane. Pp. 315. $1.50.

In this volume, Mr. Stephenson shows a decided advance, both in plot and action. Its literary finish, as we should expect, is always in the most perfect taste. The most serious criticism that would be passed upon the book is probably that it lacks action. At the same time, the motif is hardly one demanding a plot full of action, but is rather a study of the development of character as affected by circumstances. That Mr. Stephenson can draw a dramatic picture, the opening chapters of the interview between Napoleon III and the heroine amply show. The general theme of the book, that a woman may overcome the disadvantages of beauty and grow self-reliant and helpful, despite bitter disappointments, is carried out admirably. Although the ordinary reader will regret that the exigencies of this motif demand so much of sorrow, whoever will take Mr. Stephenson's point of view will find in the book a genuine and interesting study. The characters are far more human than in "The Beautiful Mrs. Moulton" and the technic shows also decided advance. Mr. Stephenson by this novel has won his place among those few writers of the day who have literary rather than journalistic ideals and whose work, if lacking in the noise of battle, is possessed of genuine literary excellence.

The Change of Heart. By Margaret Sutton Briscoe. New York: Harper & Bros. Pp. 172. $1.25.

The six short stories composing this little volume, though not possessing any strong dramatic quality, are charmingly written and are wholesomely human. In the person of the bishop the author has introduced almost a new character into fiction.

To-morrow's Tangle. By Geraldine Bonner. Indianapolis: The Bobbs-Merrill Company. Pp. 458. $1.50.

California is again the center of Miss Bonner's work. An immigrant, who has turned Mormon in order to marry a second wife, allows his first wife and an infant child to remain with a kind-hearted miner, who exchanges his two horses for the wretched woman's welfare. In the course of time the miner and his ward are married and the child is known as theirs. Years afterward, the miner immigrant becomes one of the California millionaires, and the Mormon episode of his life is forgotten. How his beautiful daughter, who has supposed that her father had been her mother's rescuer, comes to discover the truth in the situation, how she is pursued by a mercenary reporter, how she is delivered like her mother by a warm-hearted miner whom she marries, and how she gives up prospects of becoming a prima donna for life in the mountains, constitute the substance of the story; but this bare statement of the elements of the plot does the novel injustice. It is in many places possessed of genuine and dramatic power, and if it can be hardly ranked among the greatest novels of the year, it is certainly among the most entertaining.

The Interference of Patricia. By Lilian Bell. Boston: L. C. Page & Co. Pp. 156. $1.

This little sketch, for it cannot be called more, presents no particular characteristics which call for comment. It is clever and prints its profanity in full. But it is a far cry from "The Little Sister to the Wilderness."

The Tu Tze Tower. By Louise Betts Edwards. Philadelphia: Henry T. Coates & Co. Pp. 418. $1.50.

Winifred Blaize, wife of the famous explorer, promises her dying husband to complete his unfinished work by penetrating the Man Tze country. She does so, with her companion Emma, and the girl, Candace Roberts, half Chinese, whose parents had yielded to the seductions of "The Smoke." In the heart of the country she is made a prisoner by the Tu Tze, while her companions return to America to summon her lover, Michael Traquair, an English diplomat, to her rescue. He, Candace, Professor Love, preparing a work on "The Myth of the Supreme Being," and his son Lambert, reach her, after a terrible journey across Thibet. What happens during the interval and what they find on their arrival, we leave to the reader to discover. Suffice it to say, it is a scene unique in fiction. The company makes its way back through China, at the time of the Boxer uprising, Professor Love and his son being killed in the siege of Wei-Hau. The story is thoroughly interesting, even thrilling at times.

A Spectre of Power. By Charles Egbert Craddock. Boston and New York: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. Pp. 415. $1.50.

Down into the Cherokee country, in the last years of the war between France and England, comes Lieutenant Laroche, a French representative, to urge the Indians to shake off the English yoke and form an alliance with France. Falling ill, he is nursed back to health by Lilias Lesly, the golden-haired daughter of a Scotch trader, whose heart he wins away from her adorer, Callum MacIlvesty, only to lose it, when he confesses his mission and that the name he gave, Tom Wilson, was assumed. Through his aid the Lesly household is saved from massacre. After escaping by his cleverness the British force sent against him, he is later unintentionally betrayed by Lilias, and captured while on a trip to the Muskegees by MacIlvesty and his one-time friend, the Choctaw, Push-Roosh. Lilias frees him to atone for her mistake, on his arrival at the fort, and the curtain falls with Laroche safe on a French war vessel, just before peace is declared, and Lilias awakes to the fact that in Callum she finds the Tom Wilson of her heart. The story is fascinating, and the pictures of Indian life extremely well drawn.

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THE CALENDAR OF THE MONTH

FROM SEPTEMBER 15 TO OCTOBER 15, 1903

UNITED STATES.

September 15.—Secretary Hitchcock appoints Charles Jerome Bonaparte to conduct the investigation of Indian affairs.

September 16.—President Roosevelt makes a personal inspection of the Immigration Bureau on Ellis Island, after making announcement that he had appointed a commission to investigate charges made against the immigration authorities.

September 21.—United States Senator Reed Smoot is reëlected an apostle of the Mormon church.

September 22.—The new charter for the city and county of Denver, Colorado, is defeated by five thousand votes....The jury in the second trial of Curtis Jett, charged with the murder of Town Marshall Thomas Cockrill, at Jackson, Kentucky, on July 21, 1902, renders a second verdict of guilty and fixes the punishment at death. ....The Farmers' National Congress meets at Niagara Falls.

September 23.—The convention of the International Association of Bridge and Structural Ironworkers, at Kansas City, Missouri, votes to seat Sam Parks and his suspended New York union. Only three delegates oppose....The Fusionists renominate Mayor Low, of New York city, by acclamation....Efforts to reorganize the Consolidated Lake Superior Company are being made in Philadelphia.

September 25.—Attorney-General Knox decides that the Island of Guam is not under the Constitution of the United States.

September 28.—The trial of James H. Tillman for the murder of N. G. Gonzales, editor of the Columbia *State*, commences at Lexington, South Carolina....A claim is filed by the Delaware Indians preferring charges of fraud against the Dawes Commission and Secretary Hitchcock, and asking $1,000,000 damages on account of the expense to which they were put in defending the titles to their lands.

September 29.—Militia close the Victor, Colorado, *Record* by arresting the whole working staff for the paper's attitude in upholding the striking miners....At a conference with Samuel Gompers, James Duncan, John Mitchell, James O'Connell and Frank Morrison, representing the American Federation of Labor, President Roosevelt announces formally that he will not dismiss Foreman Miller from the Government Printing-office because of the union's objection to the man....At Lynchburg, Tennessee, the coroner's jury returns a verdict to the effect that the negro, Allen Small, who was killed during a raid on the Moore County jail, September 24, was deliberately, maliciously and premeditatedly murdered, and twenty-seven men are named in the verdict as guilty of the crime. ....At Wilmington, Delaware, the grand jury decides to ignore the bill against those charged with being concerned with the burning at the stake of George White, the negro who murdered Miss Helen Bishop....Henry Demarest Lloyd, author and economist, dies in Chicago, of pneumonia contracted a week before while speaking for municipal ownership. He was fifty-six years old.

SAMUEL J. PARKS
Who Forced His Admission to the Kansas City Convention of His Union.

October 1.—The Democrats of New York city nominate George B. McClellan for mayor.

October 3.—President Buchanan is reëlected by the convention of the American Bridge and Structural Iron Workers, at Kansas City, in spite of the opposition of Samuel J. Parks.

October 5.—Peter Olson Elliott is the second armed lunatic within a few weeks whom the secret service officers have prevented from attempting to kill President Roosevelt....The investigation of the extensive postoffice frauds closes, after the Federal grand jury has returned indictments against twenty-nine persons. They are as follows:

A. W. MACHEN, eleven times for conspiracy and three times for bribery.

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SIR MICHAEL HERBERT
British Ambassador at Washington who died September 30

G. W. BEAVERS, ten times for conspiracy to defraud and for taking bribes.

GEORGE A. GREEN, New York senator and president of Bundy Time Clock Company and Doremus Canceling Machine Company, once for conspiracy to defraud and once for giving bribes.

JAMES N. TYNER, indicted for conspiracy to defraud, for misconduct in office and on other accounts.

HARRISON J. BARRETT, nephew of and former law clerk to Tyner, indicted on the same charges as the latter.

JAMES T. METCALF, for conspiracy to defraud and on other accounts.

NORMAN R. METCALF, son of James T. and an employe of the Wynkoop-Hallenbeck-Crawford Company, indicted on the same counts as his father.

H. C. HALLENBECK, of the Wynkoop-Hallenbeck-Crawford Company, indicted on the same charge as the Metcalfs.

THOMAS W. M'GREGOR, of the free-delivery division, taking bribes.

C. ELLSWORTH UPTON, of the free-delivery division, taking bribes.

GEORGE E. LORENZ, of Toledo, Ohio, for assisting Machen in getting bribes.

MRS. GEORGE E. LORENZ, conspiring with her husband and Machen.

DILLER B. GROFF, of the firm of Groff Bros., Washington, giving bribes to Machen.

SAMUEL E. GROFF, of the same firm in same thing.

WILLIAM GORDON CRAWFORD, manager of the Postal Device and Lock Company, of New York, giving bribes to Machen.

LEOPOLD J. STEIN, Baltimore, giving bribes to Machen.

JOHN T. CUPPER, mayor of Lockhaven, Pa., giving bribes to Machen for securing box-painting contract.

JAMES W. ERWIN, superintendent of free delivery for the territory west of the Rocky Mountains, arranging for giving bribes to Beavers and Machen.

WILLIAM C. LONG, of Washington, giving bribes to Beavers.

ISAAC S. M'GIEBAN, of Columbia Supply Company of New York, giving bribes to Beavers.

GEORGE H. HUNTINGTON, of the same company, conspiring with Beavers to defraud.

EUGENE D. SCHEBLE, of Toledo, Ohio, conspiring with Machen to defraud in relation to letter-box contracts.

EDMUND H. BRIGGS, ex-representative in Congress from New York, conspiring with Beavers to defraud in relation to time-clock contracts.

GEORGE F. MILLER, president of the Brandt-Dent Automatic Cashier Company, of Watertown, Wis., paying bribes to Beavers.

MAURICE RUNKEL, of New York, paying bribes.

W. SCOTT TOWERS, superintendent of a Washington sub-postal station, indicted for accepting a commission on book typewriters made by the Elliott & Hatch Book Typewriter Company, of which ex-Senator "Don" Cameron is president.

W. D. DOREMUS, of the Doremus Canceling Machine Company, charge not made public; conspiracy to defraud.

D. V. MILLER, of Terre Haute, Ind., for accepting bribes in relation to decisions by attorney-general in get-rich-quick schemes.

JOSEPH P. JOHNS, of Indiana, for paying bribes to Miller.

October 7.—In Surgeon-General O'Reilly's annual report, the army vital statistics show a greater percentage of death among negroes, Filipinos and Malays than among white troops.

October 11.—After destroying $2,000,000 worth of property in two days and two nights at Paterson, New Jersey, alone, and millions more at other points, rendering thousands of people homeless and causing at least three deaths by drowning, the floods of the Passaic, Ramapo and Delaware rivers begin to subside. Many villages are still under water.

October 13.—Under a penal code the New York Court of Appeals hands down a decision that dependence on faith healing is criminal negligence, in the case of J. Luther Pierson, a faith curist of White Plains, New York, whose sixteen months' old adopted daughter died of bronchial pneumonia without medical attendance.

EUROPE.

September 16.—The Blue Book issued by the British Board of Trade shows, by an exhaustive report, that the commerce of England has been seriously reduced by tariff regulations of other nations.

September 17.—Emperor Francis Joseph has issued an order declaring that he will never grant the demands of the Hungarian party for the use of their language by officers in giving commands to the Hungarian section of the army....The following British ministers tendered their resignations, which have been accepted by the King: Right. Hon. Joseph Chamberlain, Secretary for the Colonies; Right Hon. C. T. Ritchie, Chancellor of the Exchequer; Lord George Hamilton, Secretary for India.

September 18.—Prof. Alexander Bain, formerly lord rector of the University of Aberdeen, and for twenty years professor of logic and English literature, noted educator and author, dies at Aberdeen, Scotland, at the age of eighty-five years.

September 19.—Emperors William and Francis Joseph meet in Vienna.

September 20.—Mr. Jackson, first United States diplomatic agent to Bulgaria, presents his credentials at Sofia.

September 21.—On the Berlin-Zossen electric line, a speed of one hundred and fourteen miles was attained.

September 22.—In regard to the rioting between Jews and Christians at Gomel, Russia, September 13-15, the Jewish relief committee publishes a statement that the houses of 345 Jewish workmen were plundered and destroyed;

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that twenty-five Jews were killed, one hundred sent to hospitals to be treated for serious injuries and two hundred others have been taken care of who were only slightly hurt. A private letter to the London *Times*, written from Gomel during the progress of the riots, largely confirms this statement.

September 26.—The Czar appoints M. de Martens as the third arbitrator in the claims of the allied powers against Venezuela.

September 29.—General Zontcheff, commander of the Macedonian insurgents at Razlog, telegraphs to Sofia, fifty-five miles away, that a general rising was proclaimed, September 27, in the districts of Razlog, Nevrokop, Deminbissar, Melnik and Seres, and that all the insurgent bands in eastern Macedonia had received direct orders to begin operations....The Servian army officers charged with conspiracy against the murderers of King Alexander and Queen Draga, are condemned to imprisonment.

September 30.—The Austrian cabinet is forced to resign and the Hungarian diet sittings are suspended because of Premier von Koerber's declaration that Austria will go to war to defend Emperor Francis Joseph's ban on the use of the Hungarian language in the issuance of Hungarian army orders....Sir Michael Herbert, British ambassador to the United States, dies at Davas-Platz, Switzerland, of quick consumption, at the age of forty-six years.

October 2.—Lord Milner declines to accept the Secretaryship for the Colonies.

October 3.—American missions in Macedonia issue an appeal for Red Cross help.

October 6.—Coincident with the announcement of the new cabinet ministers, the Duke of Devonshire resigns as lord president of the British council. The new cabinet officers are as follows: Secretary for the Colonies, Alfred Lyttelton, member of Parliament for Warwick; succeeds Joseph Chamberlain, who resigned on September 9. Chancellor of the Exchequer, Austen Chamberlain, son of the ex-Colonial Secretary; succeeds Charles T. Ritchie, who resigned on September 14. Secretary for India, William St. John Brodrick; succeeds Lord George Hamilton, who resigned September 14. Secretary for War, H. O. Arnold-Foster, former Secretary to the Admiralty; succeeds Brodrick, promoted to be Secretary for India. Postmaster-General, Lord Stanley; succeeds Austen Chamberlain, promoted to be Chancellor of the Exchequer. Secretary for Scotland, Graham Murray, Lord Advocate of Scotland; succeeds Lord Balfour, of Burleigh.

October 7.—It is reported that Boris Sarafoff has announced his decision to discontinue the Macedonian revolution in order not to interfere with the pacifying efforts of the powers.

October 8.—The arguments in open session of the Alaskan Boundary Commission close, and a final decision is expected by October 20....The recent exchange of visits between King Edward VII and President Loubet, and the visit to London of Baron d'Estournelles de Constant and the French parliamentarians have resulted in a general treaty of arbitration between France and Great Britain, which is arranged by M. Delcasse, the French minister of foreign affairs, and Lord Lansdowne, the British foreign minister.

PROFESSOR J. W. JENKS
of Cornell University, who will go to China to reform the fiscal system

October 11.—The new Marquis of Salisbury, better known as Viscount Cranborne, son of the late Lord Salisbury, is appointed Lord Privy Seal. Minor appointments announced are: Lieut.-Col. William Bromley-Davenport, M.P., Financial Secretary to the War Office; Ernest G. Pretyman, Secretary to the Admiralty; Maj. Arthur H. Lee, M.P., Civil Lord of the Admiralty; Lord Balcarres, M.P., Junior Lord of the Treasury; the Marquis of Hamilton, Treasurer of the Household.

October 13.—Lord Londonderry has been appointed Lord President of the Council, succeeding the Duke of Devonshire.

October 14.—King Victor Emmanuel and Queen Helena, of Italy, arrive in Paris as the guests of the French republic.

THE PHILIPPINES.

September 16.—It is reported that cholera prevails throughout the islands, and that there are one hundred cases of bubonic plague near Manila.

October 13.—The imports of Mexican dollars at Manila are largely exceeded by the exports, and a prohibitive tax is proved unnecessary.

ASIA.

October 2.—Japan denies that the dispatch of troops to Korea has any bearing on trouble with Russia.

October 8.—A formidable Russian fleet, comprising warships of all classes, all painted as in wartime, arrives in Ma-San-Pho harbor, south

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of Korea. The Russian vessels anchor alongside the Japanese ships, and lie with steam up. Several brigades of Russian troops have just pitched camp on the Korean border. This situation has resulted from the strained relations between Russia and Japan over the Manchurian question, which are close to the ultimatum stage on account of Russia's refusal to evacuate Manchuria October 8, according to the terms of the Manchurian convention. Russia abrogated these terms by her subsequent refusal to evacuate until her latest demands were complied with by China.... The new commercial treaty between China and the United States is signed and awaits ratification by the United States Senate. It permits Americans to engage in mining in China, opens to trade the two Manchurian ports, Mukden and Antung, on the Yalu river, and stipulates that the Chinese government shall protect Chinese Christians and missionaries, and also abandon throughout the empire the collection of "likin" and all other transit dues.

October 12.—M. Lessar, the Russian minister at Peking, formally announces that the Manchurian convention, signed between Russia and China April 8, 1902, whereby Russia pledged herself to evacuate the three Manchurian provinces in three periods of six months from the signing of the convention, has lapsed.

CANADA.

September 21.—Because of inability to meet an indebtedness of $5,050,000, now long overdue, the properties and assets of the $117,000,000 corporation known as the Consolidated Lake Superior Company, whose object was to develop the Sault Ste. Marie section, its waterpower, its mineral deposits and the host of kindred industries, are to be sold under the hammer.

September 28.—Unpaid, discharged workers of the Consolidated Lake Superior Company destroy in riot thousands of dollars of the company's property. The arrival of militia checks the disturbers.

October 1.—It is announced that the Ontario government has arranged with several banks to advance money to the Consolidated Lake Superior Company to enable that organization to pay off its employes. The banks have been guaranteed by the government and the funds will be deducted from subsidies earned by the company.

SOUTH AMERICA.

October 4.—The mixed German tribunal at Caracas, appointed to consider German claims against Venezuela, has awarded the claimants $418,250. The total of the claims submitted to the tribunal amounted to $1,417,250.

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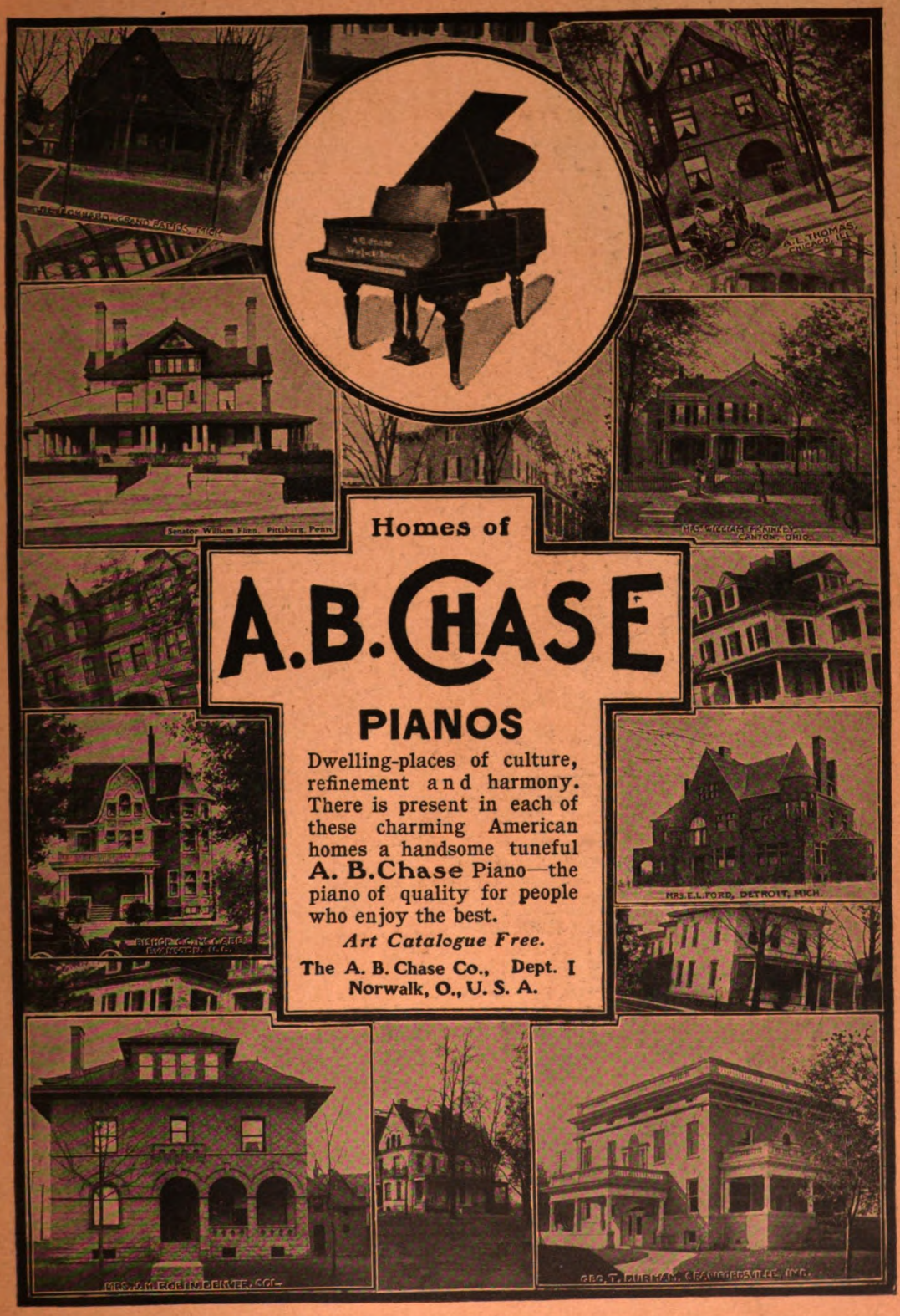

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THE WORLD TO-DAY

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KOREA AND INTERNATIONAL POLITICS

SAN FRANCISCO UNDER A LABOR MAYOR

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VOLUME V. DECEMBER, 1903 NUMBER 6

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World Politics

The United States in Panama

The recent events in Panama—the formation of a revolutionary provisional government, the declaration of independence from Colombia, the recognition of the revolutionary authorities by the United States as forming a *de facto* government, the preservation of order in the isthmus by our naval force, and the formal reception of the diplomatic agent accredited to the United States by President Roosevelt, thus recognizing the *de jure* independence of Panama, are now fresh in the recollection of all. These events have followed in rapid succession, and the action of the United States in the matter has been prompt and decided beyond all precedents. The recognition of the *de facto* government is in strict accord with international customs and with our uniform practice. The preservation of the peace at the termini of the Panama railroad is quite within our long-standing treaty rights. Thus far the action of the President is not open to criticism even by Colombia. The protection of the isthmus by our naval forces against attack goes further than any previous precedent. But by the treaty of 1846 the United States guarantees "the perfect neutrality of the isthmus," and we may well claim the right to prevent acts of war in the immediate vicinity of the lines of transit. The recognition of the independence of the new republic, by receiving its diplomatic agent, by negotiation of a treaty, or by any of the other acts by which it is customary for nations to give recognition to a new state, is on a very different basis. Were such independence actually established, no objection would be made to its recognition. But recognition preceding the clear and definitive success of the insurgent state is undoubtedly an unfriendly act to the parent state, and is a clear *casus belli*. Colombia may not care to go to war with us on that ground, but her right to do so is unquestioned. The prevention of armed expeditions sailing from Colombian ports for Panama by our naval forces is not *casus belli*—it is itself an act of war. It is armed intervention in the nature of an attack on a state with which we are at peace. It is a declaration of war; and the power to declare war rests with Congress, not with the President. Such use of our navy will hardly be made unless in obedience to an act of Congress or to the terms of an express treaty duly ratified by the Senate.

Is Intervention Justifiable?

If the government of the United States recognizes the republic of Panama as lawfully independent, it can only be with the view of protecting this independence against any adverse force. If we grant recognition we are morally bound to afford protection. This is intervention, pure and simple. The question for

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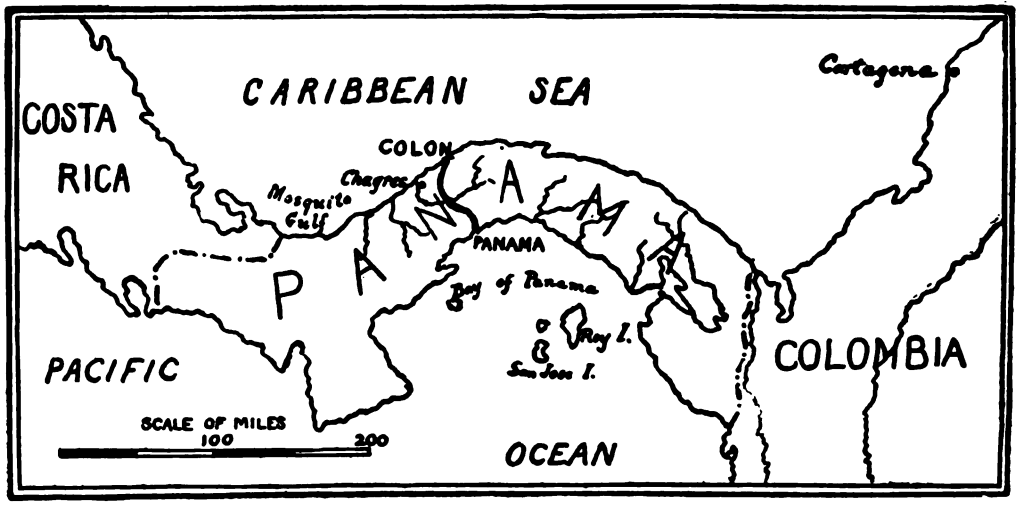
HEZEKIAH A. GUDGER
Consul-General at Panama

us to face, therefore, is whether our interests and policies in the isthmus are such as to warrant intervention by armed force. What is the situation? Panama is almost unique in the world—the isthmus of Suez alone affords a like case. Each is a narrow bar between two mighty oceans. Each lies across the line of one of the great currents of world traffic. The piercing of each by a ship canal is a necessity of international commerce, and the creation and control of such canal is matter of grave importance to every maritime nation. Each isthmus is the possession, technically, of a backward power—not merely a small state, like the Netherlands or Switzerland, which could be trusted to administer great public works with enlightened intelligence, but a state which notoriously can not be trusted to handle public interests with intelligence or with honor. In Europe the matter is settled quite effectually. The possessory rights of Turkey over the Suez are the thinnest of shadows. Egypt nominally exercises sovereign jurisdiction; but Egypt is occupied and practically administered by Great Britain. The neutrality of the canal and its common use by all nations are guaranteed by a treaty of the powers.

Our Responsibility for Maintaining Order

The Panama canal can be built only by the United States. Its use will be open to the world. The United States in the isthmus must from the nature of the case in any event be a trustee for all nations. Our treaty with Great Britain pledges this. We must invest a vast capital in the canal. We must maintain and police it at great cost. Some day it will be a tide level waterway, but before that day comes we shall have spent many years and many millions. And yet the sovereignty over this strip of land, whose



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THE KING OF ITALY AS A SPORTSMAN
Hunting formed part of his entertainment during his recent visit to Paris

use from its very situation must belong to all mankind, has inhered in such a state as Colombia. With that republic we have dealt patiently and liberally. The way in which the Bogota government has met this dealing is known to all men. It is absurd that the nation which is to create the canal should be fettered by such a community as that. The people of the isthmus have cut the tie which bound them to Bogota. Neither our interests nor those of the world at large would warrant us in permitting the restoration of the *status quo ante.* It is not the case of seeking gold mines for our own use. It is a question of putting ourselves as trustees for international commerce in a suitable position to administer our trust properly. Colombia has had a fair chance and has thrown it away. It is now time for the United States to act with vigor. Intervention is justified, and Colombia must not be permitted again to muddle affairs of the isthmus. What may be the attitude of the Senate toward a treaty with the new republic of Panama remains to be seen. There is little doubt that the Republican Senators will stand by the administration. Democratic Senators may be induced to "play politics," and to oppose a treaty in the hope of making political capital. However, it is not forgotten that while the Hawaii annexation treaty failed to command a two-thirds vote in the Senate, still Hawaii is a territory of the Union. A joint resolution for the annexation of Panama is not impossible. In fact in many ways it would be better for all concerned if the isthmus should be completely the property of the United States. Sooner or later that will doubtless be the result. At present, however, the question seems to be merely whether Panama shall be an independent republic under the protection of the United States, or shall be annexed immediately. One or other of these results seems bound to come.

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M. PHILIPPE BUNAU-VARILLA
Minister Plenipotentiary of Panama to the United States

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Decision of Alaskan Boundary Commission

The decision of the Alaskan Boundary Commission, signed at London October 20, has been received with great satisfaction in this country and with profound irritation by the Canadians. So prompt was the resistance of the two Canadian commissioners, Messrs. Aylesworth and Jette, to the findings of the majority of the commission, that they refused to sign the decision and unequivocally impugned the judicial fairness of Chief Justice Alverstone, who gave the casting vote. The decision itself can best be understood by reference to the accompanying map, which shows the windings of the coast line of southeastern Alaska with its many islands and deep indentations. The title of the United States to this territory depends upon the title acquired from Russia, and fixed by the treaty between Great Britain and Russia, signed in 1825. The provision of that treaty, upon which the whole controversy turns, is the section wherein the boundary line from Mount St. Elias to the fifty-sixth parallel is declared to follow the summits of the mountain range, except where the mountains are more than ten marine leagues from the coast, and in that case to follow the thirty-mile line. The United States has always held that the thirty marine miles are to be measured from the heads of the inlets and so-called canals along the irregular coast. That this was the intention of Russia, and was conceded by Great Britain in 1825, is shown by the fact that the fixing of the line was determined by the rivalry between the Russian fur company and the British Hudson Bay Company, it being the plain purpose of Russia to shut out the Hudson Bay Company from any outlet to the coast north of the Portland Canal. Since the discovery of gold in the Yukon region, however, it has become highly important to Canadian interests to have a port for an ocean terminus of the railroad and trade route leading to Dawson. Within a few years the Canadians have set up the claim that the thirty-mile line should follow the general outer boundary of the islands, which would place in Canadian territory the towns of Dyea and Skagway, at the head of Lynn Canal, and also the heads of several other inlets along the coast. There was room for a difference of opinion as to the correctness of the boundary line which has appeared for many years upon American maps, inasmuch as it seemed in several places to run north and east of the summit of the mountains and in other places to be more than thirty miles from the coast. Americans were prepared for some adjustment of this line based upon a new survey of the mountain region, but they have never been able to see any shadow of foundation for the Canadian claim which attempted to discredit the treaty of 1825.

American Gains Outweigh Losses

The decision of the commission, so far as it affects American interests, is almost wholly favorable. The new boundary, shown in part by the dotted line on the map, awards to Canada a considerable strip of territory on the landward side of the mountains, but the territory lost to the United States is of comparatively little value. The new line runs across the Chilkoot Pass and White Pass southwesterly to Mount Fayerweather near the coast and thence northwesterly to Mount St. Elias. The portion of the commission's decision, however, which has caused the most bitter resentment in Canada, is the determination of the boundary line on the Portland Canal. By reference to the detail map shown on the accompanying diagram, it will be seen that the Portland Canal has four islands lying near its mouth. The boundary previously claimed by the United States passed south of all four islands. The boundary claimed by Canada passed north of the four. The commission decides that the term "Portland Canal" is to be applied to the passage running between Sitklan Island and Wales Island, thence north of Wales and Pearse Islands. In other words the commission gives to the United States the two small islands at the mouth of the canal known as Kannaghunut and Sitklan Islands, while Wales and Pearse Islands are allotted to Canada. It is a singular decision if one simply observes the map, and geographical arguments would seem to be in favor of allotting all four of these islands to one nation or the other; but it appears that the basis of the commission's decision was Vancouver's narrative, which

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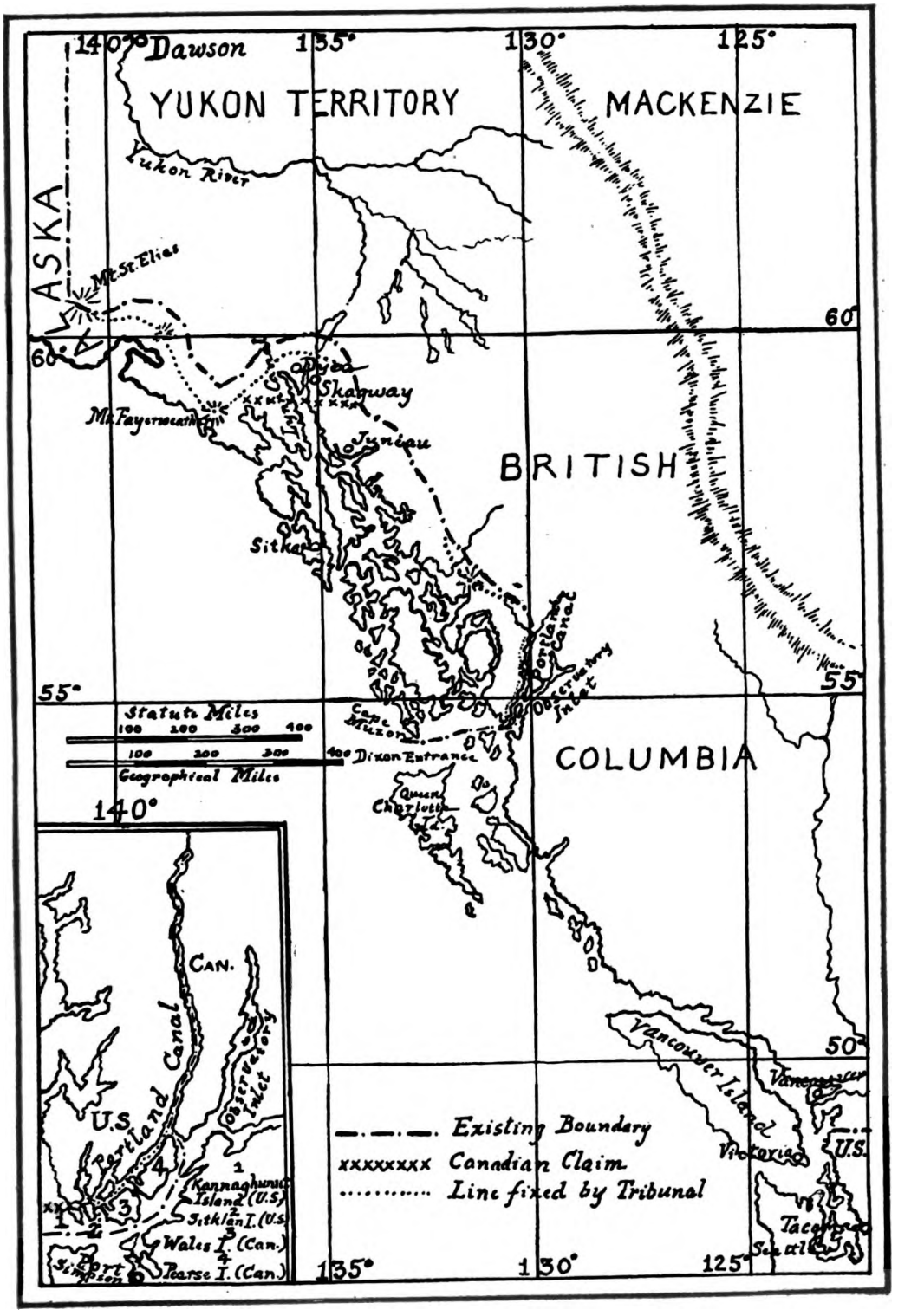

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CHEMULPO, THE PRINCIPAL PORT OF KOREA

was held to show that the British navigator sailed between Sitklan and Wales Islands on his way up the canal. Whatever the logic of this part of the decision, it has greatly displeased the Canadians. Port Simpson, which is to be the terminus of the new transcontinental Canadian railway, will thus be commanded by two American islands at the mouth of the channel.

Canadian Sentiment

The decision of the commission ends a long controversy which has many times blocked the progress of negotiations upon other questions between Canada and the United States. It is gratifying that the Canadians, disappointed as they are, give no hint of any intention to repudiate the decision, although it has not the binding authority of an arbitration. They accept it with protests which show how severely their relations with the mother country have been strained by the act of Great Britain's chief justice. It is interesting to note that the expressions of irritation in the Canadian press are for the most part directed against Great Britain rather than against the United States. Mr. A. R. Carman, in an article in this magazine, states very frankly the prevailing Canadian opinion upon the decision. It is to be hoped that with the passage of time the natural bitterness with which the decision has been received in Canada may be abated, and that the stimulus which will be given to the building of the new railway lines into the far Northwest may compensate for the failure to obtain a port on the Lynn Canal. And it may be added that there are many Americans who regret that our government had not sufficient confidence in its case to submit the matter to arbitration. So strong was the evidence brought out before the commission at London that the result of an arbitration could hardly have been different, and the moral effect would have been infinitely better.

The Progress of Diplomacy: Turkey

The past month has seen few developments in international affairs. Whether this is due to the approach of winter or to the fact that the element of novelty no longer attracts the enterprising correspondent, it is hard to say. At all events it would seem as if the entire world had for a moment determined to settle by diplomats those differences which a few weeks since seemed certain to be settled by the soldier. In Turkey the program of reforms presented to the Porte by Russia and Austria has, it is true, not yet been put in operation, but it is under serious consideration. It is hardly to be expected that the Sultan should enter eagerly upon a course of action which will

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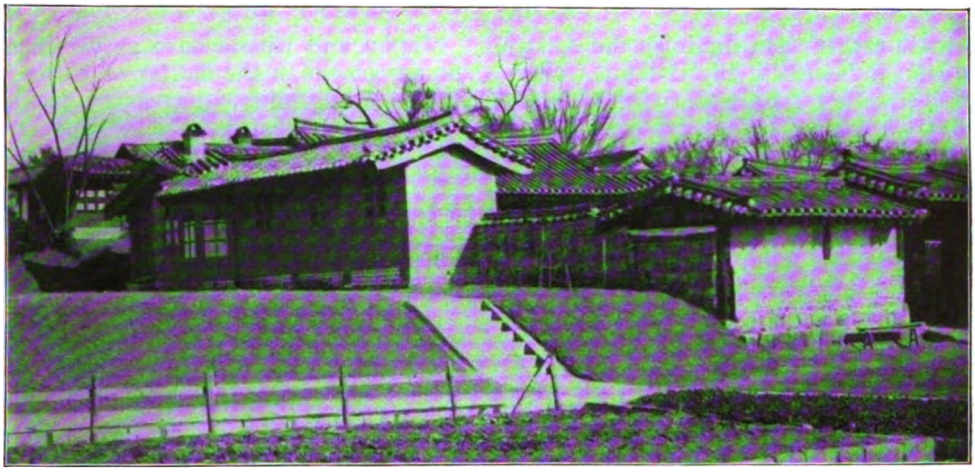
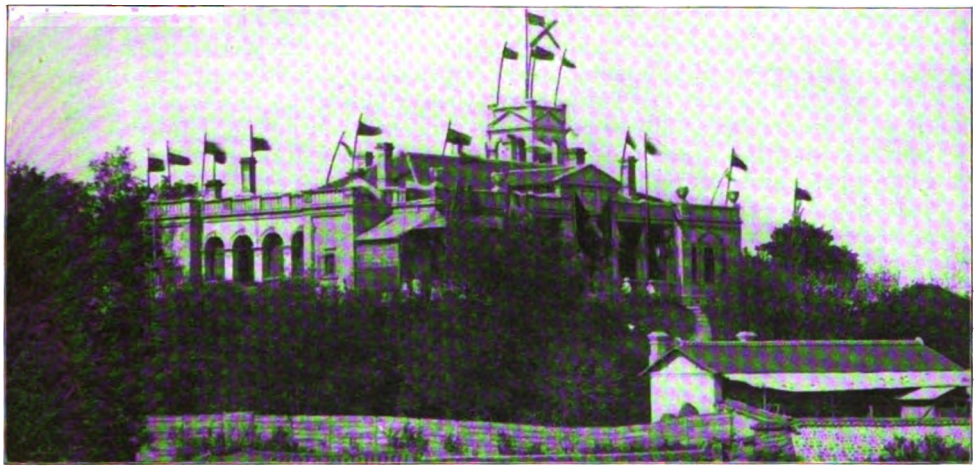


THE AMERICAN LEGATION



THE RUSSIAN LEGATION

THE JAPANESE LEGATION

LEGATION BUILDINGS AT SEOUL, KOREA

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increase rather than diminish the Austro-Russian influence in the Balkans. Since, however, the representatives of other countries in Constantinople have informed him that their governments desire that the proposed reforms be put into operation, it is probable that he will be obliged to come to a definite decision shortly. That policy of delay which has proved so effective in the past is not likely to serve in the present instance. The appearance of the American ships at Beirut has already induced certain decisions which seemed likely to be indefinitely delayed and the combined voice of Europe is pretty certain to force the reforms in Macedonia. In this connection it is interesting to note that of late there has been something of a transfer of sympathy from the Macedonians to the Turk. Newspaper correspondents, while by no means denying that the Turks have committed outrages, have discovered that the methods of the Macedonian Committee have been quite as reprehensible as those of its enemies. While this change in sympathy is far from being pronounced and while it is to be expected that the facts will hardly justify it in proceeding to any length, it argues strongly that international public opinion will not justify the maintenance of the program of emancipation through terror which has been followed by Sarafoff and his supporters.

Russia and Japan

Japan and Russia have as yet reached no agreement in the matter of Korea, but the situation is decidedly less warlike than a month ago. The frank declaration of the Russian representatives that Mukden is not to be abandoned has, to a certain extent, cleared the diplomatic atmosphere. It is not possible to trust implicitly all reports of negotiations, but it would appear as if Japan had somewhat shifted its position and while insisting that the much beset Chinese empire should not grant further demands upon the part of Russia, is really concentrating its interests upon Korea. Just what European complications may arise from the eastern situation it is impossible to predict. There have been numerous reports to the effect that Germany has returned to the old policy of Bismarck and has reached an agreement with Russia concerning Chinese affairs. British influence, in so far as it is traceable, seems to be on the whole favorable to Japan, while France and Italy seem to be approaching a new understanding. Altogether the month has been one of negotiations, the results of which are not yet to be forecast. Yet out from all seems to appear one significant fact: Japan has become a recognized world-power. It is Japanese influence above all else that now guarantees that the northern half of the coast of Asia shall not become Russian.

The Nation

Tammany's Victory

George B. McClellan defeated Seth Low, November 3, by what the politicians call a "landslide." A plurality of over sixty thousand left no doubt as to the intention of the majority of New Yorkers to put Tammany in power again. Even Brooklyn, Low's own borough, was captured by his opponent. The result was not unexpected. Hard as the Fusionist leaders struggled to arouse the "respectable citizen" vote and secure Democratic support on the ground of the good record of the past two years, powerful influences were at work which tended to defeat all non-partisan plans. The election was one which should not discourage friends of municipal reform. New York can not stand two reform administrations in succession. The best she can do is to have each interval of decent government more strenuous than the last in the correction of abuses and the setting up of permanent safeguards against dishonesty so that Tammany can do less harm next time. Mr. Low, Mr. Jerome, Commissioner Greene and their associates have done their work so well that the new Tammany leader, Charles F. Murphy, will not be able to make himself a second Croker, even if he be so inclined. From all accounts he is a machine politician of a different type from his predecessors—shrewd and silent rather than coarse and voluble. As to McClellan, his administration can hardly be as bad as Van Wyck's, and it may be a great deal better, if he keeps his recent promises.

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CHARLES F. MURPHY
The new head of Tammany Hall

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ALBERT B. CUMMINS
Re-elected Governor of Iowa

Of the seven states that elected full tickets on November 3, only two elected new governors. John C. W. Beckham, John L. Bates, James K. Vardaman, Lucius F. C. Garvin and Albert B. Cummins were reëlected respectively in Kentucky, Massachusetts, Mississippi, Rhode Island and Iowa, while the new governors-elect are Myron T. Herrick of Ohio and Edwin Warfield of Maryland. Governor Beckham's reëlection to the governorship with which his grandfather, Wickliffe, was honored, makes him, at the age of thirty-three years, the recognized leader of the Democratic party in his state. The people of Mississippi, by re-electing Governor Vardaman without even having nominated an opposing candidate, gave their sanction to the radical anti-negro policy that Vardaman has always fought for. The reëlection of Bates and Garvin are to be regarded as personal, rather than political triumphs, as no efforts of their opponents could overcome the popularity of these men with the people of their states. The tariff reform principle known as the "Iowa idea" can hardly be said to have figured in the reëlection of Governor Cummins, although his victory will doubtless give new importance to his opinions. Myron T. Herrick's election by the largest plurality ever polled in his state for a governor marks Ohio's repudiation of the principles represented by Mayor Tom Johnson, in favor of a businesslike, conservative administration. Further particulars about Governor Herrick are given in the "Men of the Month" of this issue. The Democratic triumph of Warfield is significant as being largely due to the influence of Senator Gorman and as apparently aiding the realization of the Senator's presidential ambitions. Some regard Herrick's success in Ohio, "the mother of Presidents," as making him a possibility for nomination as Vice-President in the next national Republican convention. It certainly makes him a more prominent figure in national politics than Gorman. Taken altogether, the state elections afford no evidence that the Republicans have lost prestige among the voters of the country at large. On the contrary, in so far as they warrant any forecast of the future, they foretell the hearty renomination of President Roosevelt.

The Seven Governors-Elect

JOHN L. BATES
Re-elected Governor of Massachusetts

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Congress to Do Little

It seems to have been definitely decided by the Republican leaders in Congress that the coming regular session of that body shall enact little legislation of any sort. The extra session, which met November 9, had for its task the establishing of reciprocal trade relations with Cuba. In the view of Speaker Cannon, as expressed to the Republican caucus which named him as presiding officer of the House, it is the duty of the congressmen this winter "to make generous, not extravagant, appropriations at the regular session" and then to adjourn. A simple program, truly. An early adjournment evidently is desired by the administration and a careful avoidance of tariff and financial legislation, the belief of the dominant party's leaders being that they are ready for the presidential canvass and that promises rather than further performance will make the best impression upon the voters next fall. Prosperity has rendered the latter fairly well contented, especially in the country districts, where so important a part of the voting strength of the party abides. The lull in all forms of fiscal controversy is accepted as a blessed interval of quiet. That some sudden and fierce disturbance may spring up through the Panama situation or because of some industrial crisis is by no means impossible, of course, but for the present the serene policy of "standing pat," which Senator Hanna extols so warmly, is favored with remarkable unanimity by the Republicans. The Democrats naturally will do all in their power to disturb the plans of their adversaries. In the House they have chosen as their leader John Sharp Williams, of Mississippi, a capable and forceful man who is likely to render the minority more effective in opposition than it has been for some years. Whether or not the complacent Republicans will be startled from their repose by his generalship during the coming session is a question which has an important bearing upon the legislative and political happenings of the coming year. The opening days of the extra session showed good prospects for the passage of a Cuban reciprocity bill.

EDWIN WARFIELD
The new Governor of Maryland

JOHN C. W. BECKHAM
Re-elected Governor of Kentucky

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Postal and Land Frauds

Prosecutions of the fifty or more persons indicted for their connection with frauds against the national government through the operations of the Postoffice Department began late in October with the trial at Cincinnati of Daniel V. Miller and Joseph M. Johns for conspiring to extort a bribe from a swindler to whom had been given access to the mails. It resulted in a disagreement of the jury. The trial in Washington of one of the principal cases was expected to begin November 23. Because of the exposures of thievery made during the Postmaster-General's inquiry and of the woeful lack of system in the department which made such thievery possible, it became apparent before the meeting of the extra session of Congress that an investigation by that body was to be expected. One must hope that out of the exposures will come not only the complete divorcement of the department from partisan politics, but businesslike management as well. According to the annual report of Auditor Castle, "under existing laws and conditions ninety per cent of the postal transactions can have no examination whatever in the postoffice department." For example, the $40,000,000 paid annually to railways for the transportation of mails is not subject to audit. The auditor recommends legislation which will cure this dangerous condition of affairs. Loose methods in the public land office also are largely to blame for the extensive frauds which have come to light there. Land Commissioner Richards calls for a large increase in his force of special agents to enable him to prevent fraudulent land entries and to punish those who attempt them. The timber and stone act has given opportunity for so many abuses by lumbermen and land speculators that entries under it have been suspended for some months in California, Oregon and Washington, and a strong attempt will be made to secure its repeal by the present Congress. Theft of the national domain by great corporations and wealthy individuals with the aid of dishonest government officials is so disgraceful and so injurious to the rights of actual settlers that the present energetic efforts to undo the wrongs already committed must have the warmest approval of the public.

Hawaii's New Governor

The death of United States District Judge Morris M. Estee, at Honolulu, October 27, resulted in important changes in the government of the territory of Hawaii. President Roosevelt on October 31 appointed Governor Sanford B. Dole to the vacant judgeship, and named the territorial secretary, George R. Carter, governor in his stead. Thus has ended the long rule of the eminent man who as chief justice of Hawaii under Queen Lilioukalani took a prominent part in the overthrow of monarchical government in the islands and who then became president of the republic formed by the revolutionists. During the republic's existence he successfully combated rebellion at home while continually urging upon Washington the claims of Hawaii to annexation to the United States. President Harrison's preparations to take over the republic were rejected by President Cleveland, his successor, but President McKinley's administration accepted the proffer made by President Dole and his party of the island republic. When the American flag went up at Honolulu in 1898 President Dole became the first governor of the new territory. Doubtless he is glad to retire now to the bench after his long and arduous labors for Hawaii. Governor Carter, a man of superior education and ability, who is a close personal friend of President Roosevelt's, has been given a free hand by the other officials of the territory, who promptly tendered their resignations in order that he might make as many and as sweeping changes in the government as he desired. It is believed, however, that he will not take radical action in any direction. The death on October 23 of Robert W. Wilcox, revolutionist and leader of the native element, should add materially to the tranquillity of the islands. Wilcox in 1889 headed an unsuccessful rebellion against King Kalakaua. He was a firebrand during the life of the republic, attempting its overthrow by armed revolution in 1895. For this he was sentenced to death, but President Dole gave him a pardon. He was the first territorial delegate to the American Congress, having been elected by the votes of the native Hawaiians, who were rendered discontented with American rule by his advice.

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Art and Letters

Chicago Exhibition of American Paintings

The annual exhibition of works by American artists at the Chicago Art Institute opened October 20 and continues till November 25. It is quite up to the exhibitions of previous years in the general merit of the paintings displayed, though there are few works of marked novelty or unusual distinction. Of the 397 paintings exhibited, 135 are by Chicago artists. The proportion of painters in Eastern cities who exhibit in Chicago is increasing year by year as the importance of this city as an art center becomes more thoroughly established. Eighty-one of the paintings were selected from the works of American artists in Paris, most of them from the two salons of the year. The most noteworthy group in the exhibition consists of twenty-one works by John W. Alexander. The example here reproduced, "Blue Bowl," shows the characteristic flowing lines of Alexander's figures. These pictures, with their quiet tones and harmonious composition, are worthy of careful study. John S. Sargent's portrait of William M. Chase, also exhibited, was painted for the Metropolitan Museum, New York, and is considered a most characteristic, though not an exhaustive study of the subject. This portrait was awarded the N. W. Harris prize of $500 by the Art Institute. One of the noblest figures in the exhibition is the single Abbott Thayer here illustrated, from the Albright collection, Buffalo. The artist has entitled it "Winged Figure, inscribed to R. L. Stevenson," and one may form his own theory as to the symbolism of the picture. Like all Mr. Thayer's work it has dignity and repose. The face is disappointing, but the flowing lines of the drapery are masterly. Among the other striking things in the exhibition are some vivid Venetian scenes by Eugene Vail, a group of refined New England landscapes by Ben Foster, and good examples of Charles H. Davis, Childe Hassam, Walter McEwen and other well-known artists. An immense Nativity by Frederick Baker, a young American now in Paris, occupies a good many square yards of wall surface without any very conspicuous reason. An interesting feature of the exhibition is the fine showing made by former pupils of the Art Institute, some of whom have surprised their former teachers by unexpected development of originality and power after a commonplace career in the school. The classes are larger than ever before.

"WINGED FIGURE, INSCRIBED TO R. L. STEVENSON"
By Abbott H. Thayer, exhibited at Chicago Art Institute

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"BLUE BOWL," BY JOHN W. ALEXANDER
Exhibition of works by American artists, Chicago

Exhibition at Carnegie Institute, Pittsburg

The Carnegie Institute's exhibitions have, in a small way, taken the place in this country of the salons of Paris, in that they have always been international. No other art institution in the United States has heretofore been able to arrange annually an international art exhibition, and we have had to content ourselves in lieu of a national salon with the occasional opportunity to see the work of foreign artists offered by the sporadic "World's Fairs" arranged for the American public from time to time. This year the institute has divided its annual display into two sections—an American and a foreign—and the department of foreign work is made up of the display of the International Society of Sculptors, Painters and Gravers of London, which has been brought to this country under the joint auspices of seven art institutions, and which will be shown successively in seven cities. The International Society was founded by the late James MacNeil Whistler, and its first exhibition was held in London five years ago. It is really the most progressive art society in the world, and its members are men and women whose work is everywhere known and recognized. Mr. Whistler was its first president, and the exhibition which has been brought to this country this season is in a way a memorial to that eccentric and gifted man. As a whole, the work included in this display is characterized by originality, spontaneity, freshness and vigor. The contributors represent nearly every so-called school of painting, the Glasgow school, the Munich Secessionists, the modern English school, the French school. Even the modern Italian painters are included and a few German and Dutch artists. The most conspicuous picture is the Boldini portrait of Whistler, a fantastic work, which possesses nevertheless much of the character of its distinguished original. Of the pictorial compositions, the most ambitious is Franz Stuck's "Die Furien," an unpleasant but forceful canvas, a picture which, like most of the work of this painter of Munich, haunts the memory like an evil dream. Nearly all the well-known men of the Scotch school have contributed work to the exhibition. Among them are R. Macauley Stevenson, a painter of fine poetic fancy, who exhibits three of his sympathetic landscapes; Alexander Roche; James Patterson; Francis Newberry, who is connected with the Glasgow School of Art and who shows a well-painted little figure suggestive somewhat of Stevens, and a group of little children, which he calls "The Three Sisters"; James Whitelaw Hamilton; Eugene Dekkart; D. Y. Cameron, and A. K. Brown. The Frenchmen who exhibit are all of the new tendencies. Aman-Jean has sent two exquisitely painted pictures, a trifle vague as to drawing, but full of color and charm. M. Emile Blanche exhibits among other things an attenuated portrait of Aubrey Beardsley. Cottet sends two fine studies of the Brittany fisherfolk. By the sculptor Rodin are two powerful drawings, both of that theme which has occupied him for so many years—the Inferno. Among the Englishmen who contribute to this international exhibition are John Lavery, with his aristocratic point of view; George Sauter; Gerald Maura; Maurice Griffenhagen; T. Mille Dow; Morley Fletcher; R. Anning Bell; Charles Conder. The International Society's exhibition was on view at the Academy of Fine Arts in Philadelphia during the early part of October, and it will be

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shown after the close of the Carnegie Institute's exhibition in Cincinnati, in Chicago at the Art Institute, in Boston, in Buffalo and in St. Louis.

The American Pictures at Pittsburg

The American pictures having been circumscribed as to hanging space were narrowed down to the very most interesting and important of the submitted works. In the gallery there is nothing by an unknown painter, and nearly all of the best of our native artists have sent the best of their recent work. There are three Sargent portraits, one of A. J. Cassatt, one of James Whitcomb Riley, and one of Mrs. Charles P. Curtis, Jr. Miss Cecilia Beaux has sent a new portrait and a very excellent one of Richard Watson Gilder. Thomas Eakins has sent his strong and dignified portrait of Cardinal Martinelli. There is a fine and intimate portrait of the sculptor, A. Phimister Proctor, by Robert Vonnoh. Frank Fowler contributes a portrait of William Dean Howells. Joseph DeCamp shows two portraits. Frederick Freer shows one of himself. It is probable that the first prize picture is a portrait also, though not classified as such. It is a delightfully painted picture of "A Woman Reading" by the Boston painter, Frank W. Benson. To this picture the jury gave the Institute's medal of the first class which carries with it the sum of $1,500. The second prize picture is Bryson Burroughs' "Ariadne Abandoned," to which was given a medal and $100, and Mr. W. L. Lathrop was awarded the third medal and $500 for his "Abandoned Quarry," a landscape painted with much sweetness and sympathy.

A Tribute to Professor von Holst

A matter of more than merely local interest was the recent presentation to the University of Chicago of the portrait of Professor Hermann von Holst by Karl Marr. In many ways Professor von Holst is the greatest of the school of historians who combine scientific methods of investigation with philosophical treatment. However much one may differ from certain positions taken in his monumental "Constitutional History of the United States," the value of the service

PROFESSOR HERMANN EDUARD VON HOLST
Painted by Karl Marr

rendered by that noble work is inestimable. Professor von Holst, both as a teacher and as a writer, was a moral dynamic. Throughout his work there runs a hatred of trickery and dishonesty which makes it at times a political sermon. It is a misfortune of the first order that the privations through which he passed in his earlier career should have cut him down in the very midst of his mature powers. To-day he is a hopeless invalid, momentarily awaiting the end, but the recognition accorded him by the university of which he was so distinguished a member and by the world of politics and letters was most appropriate.

The Mosely Educational Commission

The visit of the Moseley Educational Commission to the United States has been one of genuine international importance. While it is the outcome of the public spirit and the generosity of a private individual who has come to appreciate highly the capacity of Americans, its members are representative of the official school boards as well as the universities of Great Britain. The commis-

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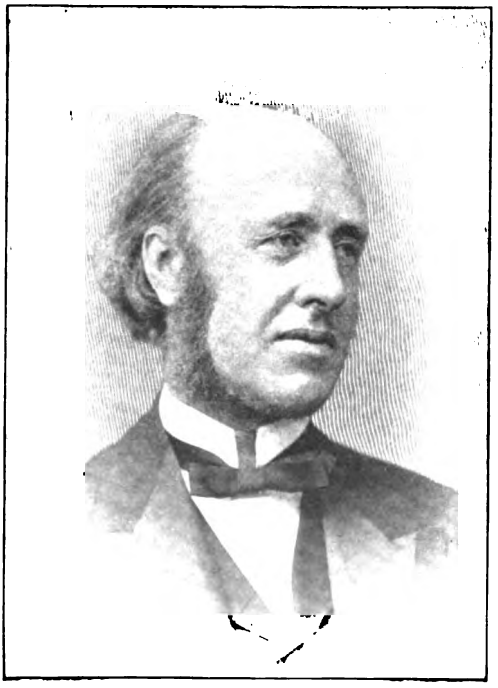
sion has visited Boston, New York, Washington, Baltimore and Chicago. In each of these cities the representative educationists have placed at its disposal all possible information and have attempted to let each member of the commission study that particular phase of education in which he was most interested. Upon their return to England each commissioner will draw up a report of his observations, which will be published presumably in the same way as were the reports of the Industrial Commission, sent out by Mr. Moseley last year. While it is too early to anticipate precisely what these reports will be, it can hardly be doubted that some of the public school men on the commission will criticize the American schools, especially those of secondary grade, for their failure to prepare pupils to pass such rigorous examinations as are set by the public schools of England. There are those, however, of the commission who will take another point of view and who, though by no means believing that the American school is in no need of improvement, see clearly its real purpose: The production of boys and girls who have trained judgments rather than retentive memories. One thing is certain; any system of education that makes the passing of an examination as its ultimate end, will produce men and women of the type of Chinese literati rather than of the type of the American man of affairs. Whatever else may come from this commission it is to be hoped that American schools will be taught to throw more emphasis upon accuracy in elementary branches, especially in the writing of English, and that English schools will abandon the examination fetich. What the commission may accomplish for the English schools it is difficult to conjecture. As we have already said in this magazine, we have grave doubts whether Englishmen can be educated into Americans anywhere except in America.



WILLIAM E. H. LECKY

William E. H. Lecky.

A historian of no mean value, a fluent speaker and a deep thinker, the Rt. Hon. William Edward Hartpole Lecky has left the world of thought and letters much the richer for his presence in it. Born of English and Irish parentage in 1838, Mr. Lecky inherited qualities which made him a lover of Ireland while his practical and logical point of view as an Englishman led him to oppose home rule. Graduating from Trinity College in 1859, he studied divinity with the intention of becoming a clergyman of the Church of Ireland, but finally determined to devote himself to authorship. In 1861 his reputation as a writer was established by his "Leaders of Public Opinion in Ireland." This was followed a few years later by his remarkable treatise on "The Rise and Influence of Rationalism in Europe." "The History of European Morals from Augustus to Charlemagne" made yet stronger impression of Mr. Lecky's power as a historical student. The most elaborate of his undertakings, the eight volumes of his "History of England in the Eighteenth Century," appeared in 1890. A large portion of it is devoted to Ireland and has transformed British opinion in regard to the people of that island. His most recent works are "Democracy and Liberty" and "The Map of Life." Mr. Lecky served several years in Parliament as the representative of the University of Dublin, but was not distinctively a party man.

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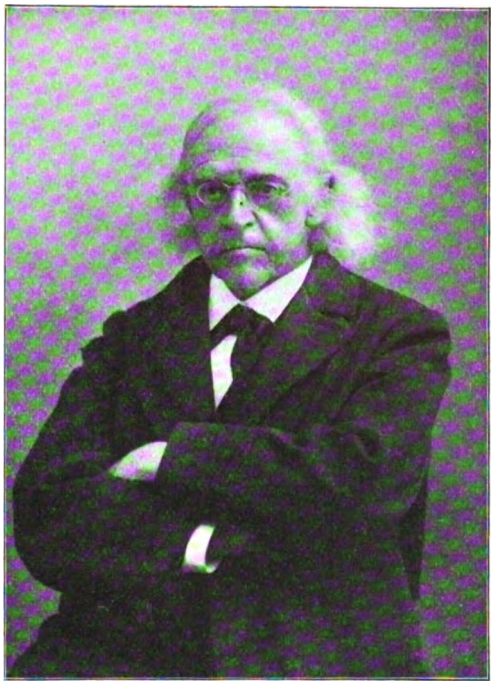
Theodor Mommsen

Singularly coincident in time with the death of Mr. Lecky came the announcement of the decease of Germany's great historian, Professor Theodor Mommsen, after a life of great activity continued almost to the end of his long life of eighty-six years. His ardent advocacy of the cause of the Boers was one of many indications of his vigorous mental powers at an advanced age. The series of controversial letters to the late Professor Max Muller, of Oxford, in which he presented the Boer claims, won many adherents for that people in Germany. He assailed the British policy in South Africa on moral grounds, and hoped that President Roosevelt's Dutch ancestry would lead him to favor United States intervention in behalf of the Boers. Professor Mommsen was an active member of the Prussian Landtag. In earnestly supporting the revolution of 1848 and opposing the government's policy of protection in 1879, he came into bitter conflict with Bismarck, the latter dispute resulting in Mommsen's being tried in Berlin on a charge of slandering the "Iron Chancellor," but of this he was acquitted. Theodor Mommsen was born at Garding, Schleswig-Holstein, November 30, 1817. He studied at Kiel where he took his university degree in 1843 in the department of law. From 1844-47 he lived in Italy, which led him to devote himself specially to a study of Roman history and jurisprudence, laying the foundations for his greatest claim to fame, his "Roman History," begun in 1854, on which he spent thirty years of labor. Professor Mommsen was also a distinguished authority on ancient inscriptions and was the originator and editor of the great "Corpus Inscriptionum Latinarum" of the Prussian Academy of Sciences. His legal erudition is amply demonstrated in his "Roman Jurisprudence." He held professorships in history and jurisprudence at Zurich, Breslau, Berlin and Leipsic, and remained a member of the faculty of the University of Berlin until his death. His last brilliant effort was a manifesto issued last year, advocating the support of the Socialists as the only party entitled to respect. With his death a leader of singular independence and power disappears from view.



THE LATE PROFESSOR MOMMSEN

Robert Henry Thurston

The scientific and engineering world has suffered a real loss in the unexpected death of this eminent scholar, inventor and teacher, who died of heart failure, October 25, at the age of sixty-four years. Dr. Thurston was born at Providence, Rhode Island, on October 25, 1839. He was educated at Brown University, and at an early age entered his father's engine shops, where he acquired valuable experience. At the outbreak of the civil war he enlisted in the navy and served as engineer on various vessels for four years. Since 1865 Dr. Thurston has been continuously engaged in teaching, at the United States Naval Academy, at Stevens Institute of Technology, and since 1885 at Cornell University. At the last-named institution he built up one of the leading technical colleges of the world and had a large share in making the science of engineering. During his busy life he produced a number of standard works upon the steam engine and allied subjects, and hundreds of engineering and scientific monographs. His many useful inventions have greatly aided in engineering research. Dr. Thurston was a valued contributor to this magazine.

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WEST POINT CADETS CHEERING THEIR TEAM

Sports

November Football

The football season for 1903 bids fair to go down into history as one in which important changes appeared in the game. It may be too much to say that these changes betoken a new line of development in plays, but they certainly argue that the game of the future will be far more spectacular and open than in the past. From the point of view of the spectator this is certainly an advantage. From the point of view of sport the same must be said, for that can hardly be called a sport in which strength rather than skill, weight rather than agility, are desirable. As the game was developing, it was an open question whether football was indeed a sport or simply a more or less innocuous form of warfare. The new rules requiring seven men in the line have greatly increased the problem of the offensive play by strengthening the defense, and the punter and runner are becoming men of first-rate importance. How true these generalizations are appears from a study of the games both East and West. Most notable, perhaps, are the games played by the Carlisle Indians against Harvard and the Haskell Indians against Chicago. In both cases their team was outweighed, but, although beaten in point of score, really won quite as much glory as their victors. Thus far the games in the East argue that Yale is to be second among the strong teams, Pennsylvania having been beaten by Columbia, which was in turn defeated by Yale by the overwhelming score of 25 to 0. Harvard has been undoubtedly developing during the past few weeks since her defeat by Amherst, but has been beaten also by Dartmouth. Princeton has showed championship form by defeating Dartmouth 17 to 0, Cornell 44 to 0, and Lafayette 11 to 0. The games of November 14 may be said to indicate pretty clearly the final outcome. By defeating Yale Princeton stands clearly as the strongest eastern team. West Point has shown the effect of the coaching of Daly, holding Harvard to a score of 5 to 0 and defeating Chicago 10 to 6, although really outplayed by her opponent.

The Western Games

In the West, Illinois has been eliminated from the championship class, while Northwestern has shown unexpected strength, thanks to the coaching of McCormack. Its best form was perhaps shown in the 0 to 0 game with Chicago. Michigan and Minnesota also played each other to a standstill in a game of 6 to 6, the game being probably the best thus far played in the central West. Chicago, like Michigan, has decisively defeated Wisconsin, and in view of the game with West Point, may be counted upon to play a

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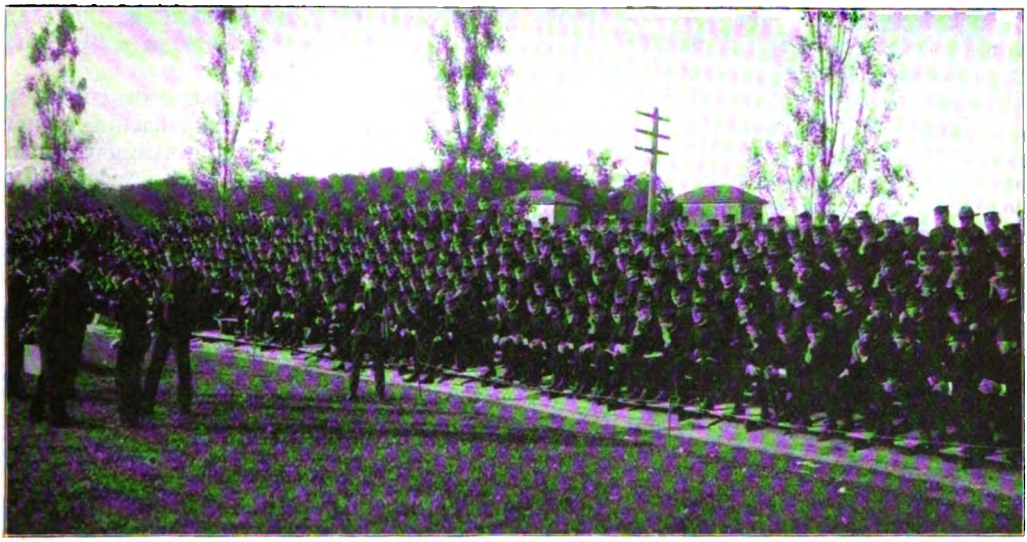

ANNAPOLIS CADETS AT A FOOTBALL GAME

strong game against Michigan. The contest between the two teams on Thanksgiving Day is likely to be the severest test to which the new styles of playing have been put in the West. Football west of the Mississippi has shown remarkable development, thanks to high-grade coaching. Nebraska, Kansas and Haskell have shown that no section of the country can any longer claim to have a monopoly on football material or football skill. Iowa alone seems to have fallen off in general form. Grinnell has shown that a small college with the proper spirit can produce athletes that will bear comparison with those of larger institutions.

Industry and Commerce

The World's Supply of Cotton

Heavy buying of cotton by the mills of the United States and Europe, together with unfavorable estimates of the new crop, kept the price of that important commodity high with an advancing tendency last month. Few conservative estimates placed the cotton yield for 1903 at a larger total than that of last year, which was 10,727,000 bales, while the belief of many that it would fall considerably short of that quantity seemingly was based upon reliable information. The lateness of the crop, the ravages of insects and early frosts have prevented a full yield in any of the great cotton states. Still, it may be doubted whether the cotton manufacturing communities will suffer as severely during the coming year for lack of raw material as they did last summer, since the mills, profiting by their recent bitter experience, are buying early and preparing to use their supply wisely. It is not unnatural to expect a strong demand for manufactured goods, for a majority of the world's mills were closed from three weeks to three months last summer because of a lack of cotton, yet such a demand extending over a considerable time may not develop. After all is said a serious shortage of cotton seems likely and the present price foreshadows it. The American public must earnestly hope that the situation will not be rendered more acute by the operations of a pool of speculators such as dominated the market last summer to the permanent harm of the American export trade and the great loss of mill owners and operatives. Thousands of persons in the Lancashire mill districts were supported by charity for weeks because there was no work. Notwithstanding the denunciations of Secretary Wilson, of the Department of Agriculture, and of the public generally, the men who operated the pool insist more strongly than ever that natural conditions fixed the high price of

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cotton. They assert that fully fifty thousand bales were shipped back to them from Liverpool, the owners choosing to speculate with it rather than to manufacture it. All the cotton held by them, they say, was sold out at the high price prevailing in the late summer, thus demonstrating that the price was legitimately produced by the short crop of last year. Whether this be true or not, at least it has been established that the world's cotton crop now scarcely suffices to meet the world's needs.

Increasing the Cotton Supply

Not only is the production of the magnificent long staple cotton of Egypt soon to be greatly increased by irrigation from the new Nile reservoirs, but, if we are to believe the reports given out by persons interested in establishing the cotton-growing industry elsewhere in Africa, arrangements for the production of that commodity on a large scale are well under way in various quarters. It is to be remembered, however, that the labor problem in connection with the industry is a big one and not to be solved merely by the issuing of a glowing prospectus. The annual report of the executive committee of the British Cotton Growers' Association, just issued, expresses satisfaction over the outlook for an early and marked widening of the basis of supply for British cotton mills. Its experts report favorably on the cotton-growing possibilities of Gambia, Sierra Leone, the Gold Coast, Lagos, Nigeria, East Africa, Central Africa and the Soudan. Most hopeful of all, however, is said to be the prospect of a largely increased production in India. The West Indies and Australia, while affording promise of excellent cotton, have labor problems which even to the optimistic gentlemen of the association seem to stand in the way of any large production of the desirable staple. Perhaps American inventive genius is to help this ambitious organization out of its difficulty. The production of cotton in any community under favorable conditions is limited by the amount that the community can pick. The American negro farmer with his wife and children can plant and cultivate a great deal more cotton than the family can gather when the crop is ready for the gin. But a cotton-picking machine is likely to be a development of the near future, one or more inventions of that sort being so nearly perfected already that they are now picking cotton on southern plantations. A successful cotton picker to take the place of human fingers must have an important effect in increasing the cotton production of the United States, while in those parts of Africa where the cotton-growing industry is in its infancy the basis of supply might be widened by the aid of machinery where now efficient hand labor is woefully lacking. The high prices of cotton which now prevail can not fail to develop new cotton-growing regions. At present sixty per cent of the American crop is exported.

Combating the Boll Weevil

Texas grows one-third of all the cotton produced in the United States. The cotton-growing districts of that great commonwealth, however, have been invaded by the Mexican boll weevil, to the great injury of the crop. Secretary Wilson, of the Department of Agriculture, went to Texas last month to familiarize himself with the details of the work carried on at the government experiment stations for the purpose of finding a way to combat the destructive pest. Efforts to breed a hybrid variety of the cotton plant which the weevil will not injure, thus far have been unsuccessful. It has been found, however, that early planting, thorough cultivation, and the use of seed brought from districts where the weevil is not known, materially aid in protecting the crop from injury. As a result of his investigations in Texas, Secretary Wilson asserts that it is possible to produce cotton at a profit in spite of the boll weevil. That it is a grave menace to the South, however, is not to be doubted. At one experiment station the secretary found that twenty-five acres of early cotton raised twenty-three bales, while later cotton in a field of the same size yielded twelve bales, and cotton in a third field of twenty-five acres was entirely destroyed by weevil. The secretary strongly recommends rotation of crops as an effective method of ridding the land of the insect. Its probable invasion of the other cotton states is regarded by him as especially to be dreaded, since in them there is practically no other crop but cotton. The farmers of

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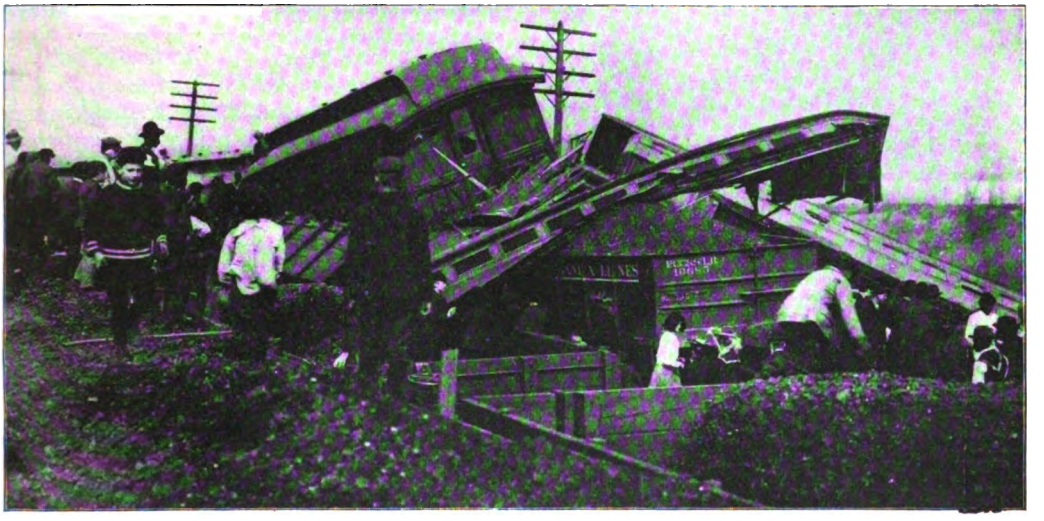
Texas are relying for relief mainly on the importation of cotton seed, and three hundred thousand pounds for next year are desired by them. They seek government aid in carrying on the struggle to drive out their enemy. A convention of the National Cotton Growers' and Boll Weevil Association, held at Dallas, November 5 and 6, voiced the wishes of the planters in this respect. While the alarm caused by the destructive Mexican invader is great and the losses due to its ravages are enormous, it is absurd to say, as some have said, that American cotton-growing is doomed.



THE WRECK OF THE PURDUE FOOTBALL TRAIN, AT INDIANOPOLIS, OCTOBER 31
Photographed for THE WORLD TO-DAY by a staff artist of the *Indianapolis News*

The Nation and the Levees

At New Orleans on October 27 and 28 an Interstate Levee Convention considered the question of levee construction to protect from floods the lowlands of the Mississippi valley. It was attended by delegates representing commonwealths and cities, members of Congress and other influential persons. The conclusions arrived at are expected to influence future legislation looking to the completion of the great system of levees on which many millions of dollars already have been spent. Congress for some years has been making appropriations at the average rate of $1,000,000 a year to assist in building these levees. The appropriations have been made in aid of navigation, however, and not primarily to protect land subject to overflow. Louisiana, Mississippi, Arkansas and Tennessee raise for levee construction all the money they can year after year, much of it by extraordinary methods of taxation. Some congressmen insist that the government has no right to spend money for levees, since the benefit is local, and that the levees are a failure anyway, causing deposits of silt in the river channel which continually lift the stream higher and higher above the surrounding country. To the former objection levee advocates reply that the nation in undertaking to reclaim arid lands of the West has entered upon work similar to that of protecting fertile lowlands from overflow. Engineers of the Mississippi River Commission answer the second objection by asserting that the levees tend to scour out the river and make its bed deeper by confining the flood waters and increasing the current. As to the effectiveness of the present incomplete levee system its advocates point out that during the floods of last spring, the highest ever known, there were but six crevasses, while during the flood of 1897 there were thirty-eight. Protection is being afforded already, except from floods of phenomenal height, to about twenty thousand square miles of fertile country that formerly suffered overflow every spring. The theory advanced by some that the river floods could be controlled by the construction of

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reservoirs and outlets was emphatically rejected by the convention in its resolutions, which declared that the nation should take over the work of levee building or at least should increase its appropriations. They also advised that the nation advance the river's usefulness for navigation by constructing a waterway from the great lakes to the river through the channel dug by the Chicago Sanitary District at a cost of $35,000,000.

Bankers on the Currency

Optimism pervaded the proceedings at the annual meeting of the American Bankers' Association in San Francisco, October 21 to 23. The report of its currency committee, which included in its membership such eminent financiers as Charles S. Fairchild, of New York; Myron T. Herrick, of Cleveland, and John J. Mitchell, of Chicago, declared that there was no scarcity of money and that the principal financial legislation needed was such as would authorize the deposit in banks of money paid to the national treasury for customs duties, thus preventing its withdrawal from general circulation. Beyond seeking to provide for emergencies by establishing a system of circulation based on the deposit in the national treasury of acceptable securities against which bank notes could be promptly issued and as promptly withdrawn when an emergency had passed, the committee found the existing currency admirably suited in every way to the country's needs. President Caldwell Hardy in his address was emphatic in his opposition to all schemes to bring about undue inflation. The comptroller of the currency, Mr. Ridgely, gave expression to more liberal views, since he declared himself in favor of a bank note circulation based on bank credits. However, he recognized that such a change of system could only come gradually and in his opinion the present business situation did not require it. The comptroller, as well as all the other speakers, dwelt upon the absolute soundness of the country's financial condition despite the tremendous fall in fictitious values of stocks. To the treasurer of the United States, Mr. Ellis H. Roberts, however, was left the task of showing by figures and comparisons the extraordinary financial strength of the country by reason of its enormous stock of gold. Our production of that metal, amounting to $80,000,000 a year, and our great exports of commodities are adding so rapidly to our stock of gold that the addition amounts to a vast inflation of the currency. The increase of $588,000,000 in the money in circulation in the United States during the last five years includes $358,604,000 in gold. Inflation of this sort, while inciting healthy activity in industry and trade, has also raised our national credit higher than that of any other nation. The convention as a whole supplied a most reassuring demonstration of the country's sound financial condition.

Labor and Its Employers

That the National Civic Federation is doing a useful work in bringing employers and trades-unionists together for friendly conference is beyond dispute. Not only is their interchange of ideas on labor questions directly beneficial, but personal intercourse leading to friendship and confidence prepares the way for conciliation or arbitration when disputes between employers and workmen arise in any part of the country. Senator Hanna in his various addresses before the Federation, of which he is an active member, wisely dwells upon the possibilities of peaceful discussion and fair compromise that lie in the organization. In view of the frank expressions of opinion on important labor questions made by the speakers at the fourth annual convention of the Federation, which was held in Chicago from October 15 to 18, it may be taken for granted that the gathering advanced the cause of industrial peace. Perhaps the discussion in regard to the "open shop" attracted the most attention. President John Mitchell, of the United Mine Workers, made one of the principal addresses upon this subject, upholding the right of trades-unionists to refuse to work with nonunionists because the latter are a disorganizing element that has the active, if secret, coöperation of the employer. The demand of the representatives of the employing class was, of course, that violence and intimidation of every sort be eliminated from the strike methods of

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labor unions and that when they withdraw their members from any shop or other place of employment they recognize the right of the employer peaceably to conduct his business without further interference. This sorry problem of coercion as applied to employers by unions through lawless methods seems as far from solution as ever, since even such enlightened and capable leaders of labor sentiment as Mr. Gompers and Mr. Mitchell when among their friends of the Civic Federation fail to reveal any earnest effort on the part of trades-unionists to prevent and punish lawlessness among their members.

To Deepen the Erie Canal

The question of improving the Erie Canal to admit of the passage of thousand-ton boats was the dominant one in the recent New York State campaign. That the amendment to make the state sponsor for a canal fund of $101,000,000 was carried in the election of November 3, by a majority of 175,000, is owing to the vote of New York city, where the sentiment is altogether in favor of connecting the Great Lakes with the Hudson River by a deep waterway. Even the excitement of the Tammany-Fusion controversy failed to make the people forget the importance of the canal problem. Thousands of people believed the canal question to be of national importance. They believed also that New York city was losing its prestige as a port for exporting grain because the Erie Canal has been allowed to become obsolete, so far as present-day vessels are concerned. Thereby competition has been removed from the railroads extending through the state and terminating in the metropolis, and so these roads have been gradually increasing the cost of freighting grain. With such convictions it was natural for them to believe that the best and cheapest way to curb the railroad corporations and maintain the advancement of New York City was for the commonwealth to interest itself in a new Erie Canal. The opposing campaign carried on by the agents of the railroads and by the newspapers controlled by the railway magnates had a widespread effect, as almost all the rural counties voted against the amendment.

FRITZ AUGUSTUS HEINZE

Heinze and the Copper Trust

A decision rendered October 22 by District Judge Clancy, of Montana, awarded to F. A. Heinze the Minnie Healy mine, valued at $10,600,000 and restrained the Amalgamated Copper Company from operating the Boston and Montana mine, the richest in the state. This victory, involving the ownership of the richest copper mines in Montana, looks very much like that of one wolf devouring a pack. A modern soldier of fortune of thirty-three has at least momentarily triumphed in a legal war in which tens of millions of dollars are at stake, has caused the most extensive shutdown ever known in Montana, has thrown nearly twenty thousand men out of work, and very naturally boasts of being "the man who balked the copper trust." About twelve years ago Heinze graduated from the Polytechnic Institute of Brooklyn, and went to Montana as an engineer and promoter. From that day to this he has been engaged in his fight with the copper kings. His first move was to organize the Montana Ore Purchasing Company. It prospered from the first

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and soon antagonized Marcus Daly and the men associated with him in his extensive mining ventures. At first the experience of the practical men in the West won a few victories and compelled him, for self-preservation, to transfer some of his operations to British Columbia. Day and night, however, the daring young Easterner studied the intricate mining laws under which the most valuable properties in Montana were held, until, as he alleges, he could prove that the companies in possession of the rich copper lands had no legal right to them. Three years ago, when Heinze filed more than three hundred suits against concerns that once fancied they were secure in the ownership of their mines, it is stated that officers of the Amalgamated Company offered him $14,000,000 to abandon his legal fight and leave the state.

The legislature is in extra session to enact a law making a change of venue possible in mining cases where a judge is known to be prejudiced. The works are allowed to resume operations.

The Religious World

Mrs. Emma Booth-Tucker

The sudden death in a railroad accident of Mrs. Emma Booth-Tucker, co-commander with her husband of the Salvation Army in this country, has deprived that organization of an attractive and forceful leader. She was the second daughter of General William Booth, founder of the Army, and was born at Gateshead, England, in 1860. Her life from girlhood was devoted to the work established by her father. When but twenty years of age she was placed in charge of the Salvation Army's international training homes in London, a position for which she was particularly well fitted by the correctness of her estimates of human character and ability. She was married in 1888 to Judge Frederick Latour Tucker, who, while occupying a legal position in India, had been attracted to the work of the Army and had gone to England to engage in it. He coupled his wife's name with his own upon their marriage, and they went at once to India, where Mrs. Booth-Tucker became widely known to the poor and helpless of the cities of the Far East. After a time General Booth summoned them back to London where their proved efficiency determined him to appoint them, in 1896, to the charge of the Salvation Army work in the United States, with equal authority. Here Mrs. Booth-Tucker's executive ability and eloquence won for her wide influence. She was a natural leader, tactful, energetic and consecrated. At the time of her death she was on her way to Chicago after a tour of inspection of the western posts of the Army, and had planned a "red crusade" of special services to be held in this city, her husband arriving from New York the same morning to meet her and coöperate in the undertaking. She leaves a family of seven children, the youngest not yet a year old. It is a grievous commentary upon the controversy that has rent the Booth family that it should have intruded itself even upon Mrs. Booth-Tucker's funeral.

Difficulties of Church Union in Scotland

The union in 1900 of the Free Church with the United Presbyterian Church of Scotland was a victory for the principle of union, and a long step toward the obliteration of irritating and needless sectarian distinctions. But, while the acceptance of the ideal was practically unanimous, the union committee has not had an altogether easy time of it. When an opportunity arises for the amalgamation of two struggling congregations in a small country town or village, it is sometimes found that the spirit of rivalry and jealousy has not been altogether suppressed. In a gratifying number of cases a union has been satisfactorily accomplished, but at the August meeting of the commission of assembly a crop of union cases gave witness to the survival of the narrow spirit, or to the lack of tact displayed by the local presbyteries. At Johnshaven, for instance, a former United Presbyterian congregation refuses to enter into union, because the presbytery, after taking skilled opinion, has decided that the building of the late Free Church is the better one, and should become the temple of the united congregation. On the

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DOWIE PREACHING IN MADISON SQUARE GARDEN, NEW YORK

other hand, in Montrose a Free Church congregation refuses to have anything to do with a United Presbyterian church in the same street. In a good many cases the surviving minister is the stumbling-block. There are usually in the other congregation (in small places at any rate) a number of people who have for reasons of their own retired from the pastoral care of the surviving minister. These have little wish to be brought back, especially with the stigma of having preferred another to the minister whom they are now forced to take. The only wise remedy seems to be the provision of a suitable sphere for the surviving pastor.

Union of Presbyterians and Methodists

The Presbyterians of Australia and New Zealand approached the Methodist churches of that country some time ago with suggestions of an organic union of the two denominations. This movement is the outcome of a widespread feeling in those countries. The Methodists have welcomed the idea. A special committee representing both churches met to consider the proposals. Their doctrine and system of church discipline are found to differ very slightly. The Presbyterians offer no objection to the adoption of a modified form both of class meeting and of itinerancy. The whole question of the union is to be laid before the chief courts of the two churches and should a majority be in favor of it, a joint committee will be appointed to draw up bases of union. The reasons suggested for the change are: the doing away with the overlapping in church work; the additional funds thus placed at the disposal of the united bodies; and, increased ability to grapple with the missionary problem.

Dowie's Defeat

The picturesque crusade of Dowie's "restoration host" in Manhattan ended in ignominious failure. Dowie is probably right in attributing his poor success to the newspapers. New York reporters ridiculed his personal appearance and printed his eccentric epithets as uttered, with the effect of attracting huge crowds for a few nights and then driving them away. The city refused to take him seriously, and such homage as Manhattan pays even to a fraud, if only his fraud be successful and on a large enough scale, was withheld when the converts and the dollars were found to be lacking. Had

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ZION GUARDS AT MADISON SQUARE GARDEN

Dowie been able to parallel in New York a few of the remarkable cures which he is generally supposed to have accomplished in Chicago—by what means is another question—his crusade would have had a more auspicious ending. A far more impressive spectacle than the general overseer's platform performances was the house-to-house visitation by his thousands of followers. They called upon rich and poor alike, with their tracts and their quaint greeting, "Peace be to thee." With a zeal worthy of a better cause, these people trudged the streets from morning till night, many of them beyond the limit of physical strength, in the effort to cover the ground allotted to them. Little or no permanent impression was produced in New York by the "restoration host." It is said that most of the small number of converts immersed in the specially constructed tank at Madison Square Garden were members of the party from Zion City, not New Yorkers. After the return of the "host" to Chicago, Dowie continued to hold meetings in Carnegie Hall, but without retrieving the failure of the preceding fortnight. The trip must have cost several hundred thousand dollars, and the loss of prestige and business credit which have resulted from the collapse of the expedition can not be estimated in money. Dowie left New York boasting that he would return in greater force two or three years hence, and that he would have 50,000 converts then. Whether the New York fiasco will undermine the leader's hold upon his adherents at Zion City and elsewhere remains to be seen.

The State of Religion Throughout the Country

During the past month the various religious denominations have been holding their annual state and national conventions. As far as can be ascertained from the reports presented at these gatherings, the past year has shown no marked change in the general religious conditions of the United States. Nor are there any trustworthy indications that the new year promises marked advance. The conventions seem to have been marked by earnest heartsearchings on the part of the attending clergymen, but few positive results have as yet appeared or are anticipated. The fact that religion in its ecclesiastical form is undergoing radical transition was never more manifest. For many reasons men are growing indifferent to the church and to the claims of a theological Christianity. As a symptom of such indifference, one needs merely to mention the decline in the numbers of students in the theological seminaries of all denominations. It is true some seminaries show no marked decrease in their student bodies, but their success is largely at the expense of other schools of their own faith and practice. They attract students by the use of large gifts of money, or by their noble equipments, or by a reputation for orthodoxy, or scholarship, and in one case at least, by all such means. And another fact is beginning to appear in these conventions—the gradual separation of the ministry into two main classes. On the one hand are those who seek to adjust themselves to the new social and intellectual conditions of things, and on the other are those who hold tenaciously, and oftentimes with the spirit of persecutors, to the beliefs and methods of the past. Between these two classes there is the great theological Center, composed of men who do not care to think and who are yet too kindly and too much in sympathy with humanity as

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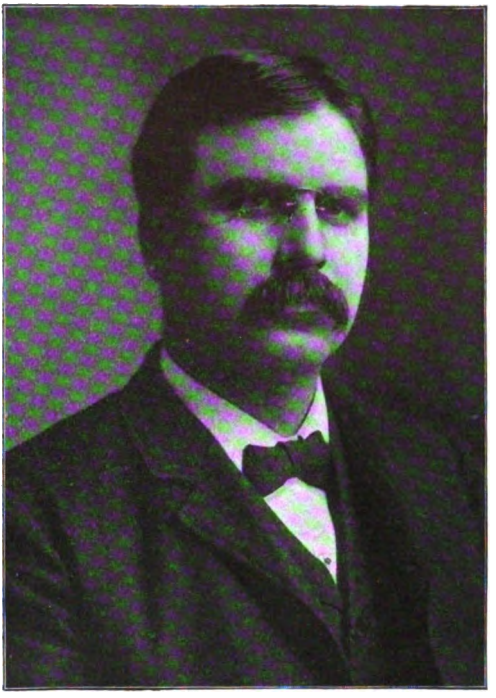
they find it, to wish to enter into theological warfare.

The Church at the Parting of the Ways

It is with this last class that the future largely rests. The situation in the churches is, in fact, critical. Unless we mistake, organized Christianity is standing at the parting of the ways. If honest, tolerant, earnest men do not interfere at once the theological world may drift off into academic investigation and the churches themselves grow to be clubs of *bourgeois* folk possessed of no idealism, of no earnestness in the settlement of questions of economic and social morality, out of touch with culture and out of touch with all that is making the future. We may as well look the matter in the face. A Christianity that does not dare preach immortality, that substitutes belief in the verbal inerrancy of the Bible for moral passion, that prefers orthodoxy and good collections to self-sacrificing devotion to the poor and the cultured alike, that prefers the appeals of theological demagogues to rational religious convictions—such a Christianity can not endure. It will very properly shrivel up. Whether such shall be the outcome of the present religious situation is not to be settled by the rhetoric of either pessimist or optimist, but by the conduct of honest men who see their duty, and, in the spirit of the martyrs, undertake to perform it.

Scarcity of Clergymen

There is so much outcry about the poverty of the clergy of the Church of England that the words "curate famine" would at once suggest the lack of nourishment from which many of them suffer. Nevertheless what is signified is the dearth of curates that is well-nigh driving the clergy to despair. In congested city parishes where a vicar should have four curates he is thankful if he can secure two, and generally is in the unhappy condition of being on the lookout for a second. In the provincial towns of dioceses which include country parishes that used to be frequently supplied or assisted by the town clergy, the lack of curates is even more severely felt, and many a man is a prisoner in his parish because of the impossibility of arranging for anyone to take his place.



IRA LANDRITH

Ira Landrith, Secretary of R. E. A.

The choice of Ira Landrith as general secretary of the Religious Education Association places the association in a position to enter upon the full work for which it was organized last February. Its staff of officers is now approaching completion, the work of the departments is well organized, and the many investigations and enterprises which are to be undertaken in the interest of religious and moral instruction are well under way. The new secretary is a southern man, born in Texas, and received his collegiate and theological training at the schools of the Cumberland Presbyterian Church in Lebanon, Tennessee. During the past thirteen years he has been editor of the *Cumberland Presbyterian,* of Nashville. He has made himself one of the most influential members of that branch of the church. He is a leading member of the committee of the Cumberland Presbyterian Church which is negotiating for a union of that denomination with the Presbyterian Church North. Dr. Landrith has also been active in Sunday school, Christian Endeavor and Young Men's Christian Association work.

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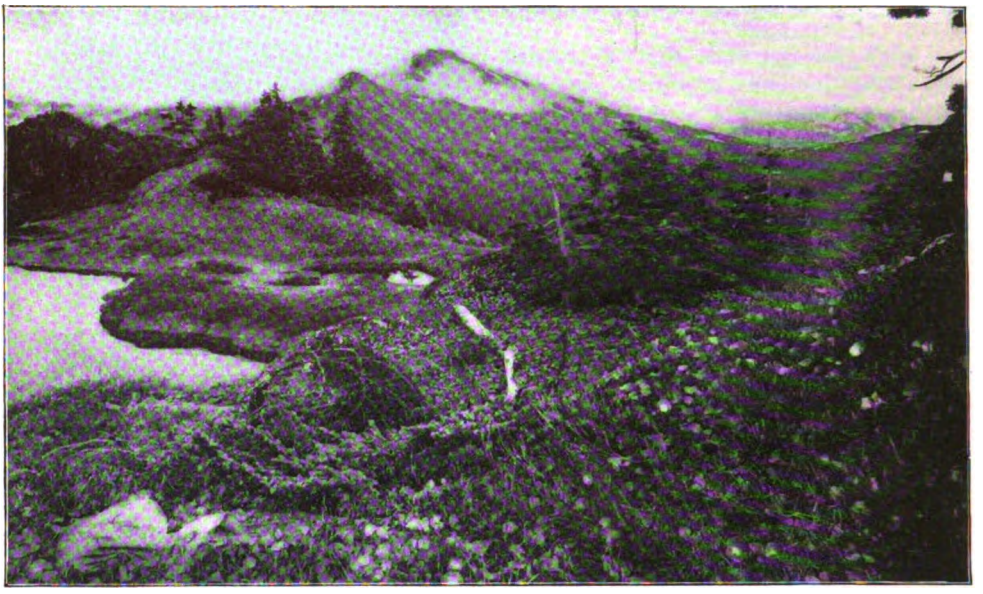

A MOUNTAIN VIEW IN THE DISPUTED TERRITORY

A CANADIAN VIEW OF THE ALASKAN AWARD

BY

ALBERT R. CARMAN

IF it had not been for the invitation of the editor of *The World To-Day* to do so, it would never have occurred to me to prepare, for an American publication, a review of Canadian opinion on the Alaskan award. But *The World To-Day* is evidently a significant title.

The ordinary Canadian layman, who has not posted himself on the details of the argument, has had three very convincing adventitious confirmations of his natural inclination to believe that his own country was in the right. The first came when the American government refused to submit the case to a real arbitration; that is, an arbitration with an impartial "umpire." The Canadian layman argued that, if this meant anything, it meant that the American government feared that it might lose; that, in other words, it might be shown to have the weaker case. On the other hand, the Canadian government sought such an arbitration, from all of which the layman inferred that the Canadian looked to be the stronger case.

The second confirmation of this feeling came when the names of the American commissioners on the tribunal for "judicially interpreting the terms of the (boundary) treaty," were announced. The uninformed Canadian layman was now confident that he must have an exceedingly strong case when the American government was driven to select such "impartial jurists of repute" in order to make it certain that the award would not go against it.

And now the third confirmation has come in the attitude of the two Canadian Commissioners, who, having heard all the evidence, felt it necessary not only to disagree with Lord Alverstone, the Chief Justice of England, but to state in so many words that the conclusion he had reached was not a "judicial" one. The great reluctance that exists in Canada

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to believe anything derogatory to the good faith of the Chief Justice shows how extreme a step these Canadian commissioners felt it their duty to take, and at the same time draws a line of deep emphasis under the protest of Mr. Aylsworth and Sir Louis Jette.

The suspicion that we should lose, in any event, has robbed the award of that element of surprise which, had it been present, would have made Canadian resentment far more clamorous. But this is a case in which it will be very unsafe to measure feeling—and its results—by clamor. The fact is that the press has been markedly restrained; and even the discussion in Parliament was more remarkable for utterances openly delayed than for utterances spoken. At the time when I write these lines, Canada is really waiting for Lord Alverstone's fuller explanations. The profound respect which is paid him personally and by reason of his office has kept criticism silent; and in no case is it likely to be very vocal. Certainly he will get the fullest hearing before a word of importance is said against him. This attitude was very prominent during the debate in the Canadian Commons. Mr. Borden, the leader of the opposition (Conservative), was unsparing in his criticism of the course of the government throughout the whole affair; but he did not utter a syllable against the British commissioner who voted with the American representatives. When Sir Wilfrid Laurier arose to reply, he construed a part of Mr. Borden's argument to mean that Lord Alverstone had not treated Canada as justly as a Canadian commissioner would have done; but Mr. Borden promptly repudiated this interpretation and denied that he had attacked the Chief Justice of England. Sir Wilfrid, too, took the same position, and said that, much as he regretted and was surprised at the decision, he would not accuse the Chief Justice of injustice until we had had "a reasoned opinion" from him.

The entire attitude of the two Canadian party leaders may be taken fairly to represent official opinion. Mr. Borden, who spoke first, prefaced that Parliament was not yet in a position to discuss the merits of the case, but confessed that he did not see how the attitude of the majority of the commission was possible. As against the policy of the Canadian government in the matter, he laid three criticisms: (1) That they abandoned the position taken at Washington before the Joint High Commission where they refused to submit the question to any but a genuine arbitration tribunal with an "umpire"; (2) That they had not insisted upon some settlement of the Alaskan matter in connection with the abrogation of the Clayton-Bulwer treaty, and (3) That, when they learned the names of the American representatives on this Commission of Interpretation, they had not demanded that three Canadians represent the British side.

Sir Wilfrid Laurier replied first to the third count, declaring that he could not take the position that a Canadian commissioner would have dealt more justly by Canada than the chief expert in England. "I will wait until I have the reasoned opinion of the Chief Justice before launching against him such harsh language." The second count, Sir Wilfrid ignored; and his defense on the first was virtually that the Canadian government could not help itself. He was invited to take part in the constitution of a court which was charged with "the duty of judicially interpreting the terms of the (boundary) treaty." In no case was there to be any surrender of territory. It was merely a question of determining what each party was entitled to. In the face of such an invitation, what was he to do? We were not even the treaty-making power; and we did not want this boundary dispute to remain open forever. So we agreed to have the treaty judicially interpreted. The spirit of this agreement was at once broken by the American government, which appointed commissioners, "who, with all respect be it said, could not qualify as impartial jurists" (Laurier). Canada protested, but the treaty was signed by the British authorities.

So much for Sir Wilfrid's defense. His attitude toward the future was expressed in two aspirations. He wanted greater treaty-making power; and he wanted a railway on Canadian territory from British Columbia to the Yukon. Neither

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of these lines of policy was he ready at the moment to make definite; but he indicated that they would assume a more tangible form later.

The press, as I have said, has preserved a statesmanlike restraint. There is no other feeling than that the award is unfair to Canada; but there is no thought of permitting this fact so much as to raise the question of Canada's relations to the empire. For example, the Montreal *Star* is unable to see "how it is possible for Canada to enjoy greater treaty-making powers than she now possesses, while remaining a dependency of Great Britain, unless we are prepared to support our own navy to compel respect for our own treaties. . . . Nor is it easy to see how, if Great Britain is to be represented on any international commission, she can be adequately represented by less than one whole commissioner." There is, too, a dominant note of self-reliance; but that has been characteristic of Canada for generations. "The lesson for Canada in the Alaskan award can not be misunderstood," says the Toronto *News*. "We have nothing to gain from British diplomacy, and less from American friendship. . . . In short, we shall go on building our own country in reasonable good neighborhood with the United States, and in sympathetic alliance with Great Britain, but seeking neither concessions from the one nor sacrifices from the other."

The most difficult point, of course, for Canadians to understand is the cession of the two islands in the Portland Canal to the United States. Sir Louis Jette and Mr. Aylesworth say that it was never argued before the Commission that the four islands in the canal should be divided. The opposing contentions were that they should all go either to the United States or to Canada. Further, Lord Alverstone is said to have agreed with the Canadians that their contention was "absolutely unanswerable." Yet the line is drawn between the four islands with a crook worthy of a "gerrymandered" electoral division. It appears impossible to regard this as other than a compromise; though Sir Wilfrid Laurier insists with some heat that "Lord Alverstone took an oath to give a judicial interpretation." Again Canada is waiting for Lord Alverstone to speak. Yet there is a feeling that there was nothing wanton—if mistaken—in this abandonment of the Canadian claim.

Nothing in connection with this whole affair is, in fact, more admirable than the dignified refusal of the Canadians to be stampeded into anything like a reckless attitude by this unfortunate award. There is no sign that our people will be deflected by so much as a hair's breadth from the course they were pursuing before it came. We have, as then, a settled conviction that our best destiny lies within the British Empire; and we have also, as then, an unwavering determination to recognize our growing responsibilities in world politics and to strive to make easier friendly relations between the two great Anglo-Saxon powers. Our conviction that the British Empire and the American Republic are the two first civilizing forces in Christendom has not been shaken; nor our belief that a perfect understanding between them would constitute one of the most valuable moral assets of the race. But we are, frankly, inclined to question whether this "understanding" is to be advanced by implanting in the Canadian memory a deep sense of grievance. We Canadians have six millions to-day, and our sea and land gates are pushed permanently open by the inrush of immigration from the counties of Britain and the states of the Union, as well as the ever-brimming populations of Continental Europe. We have in the West a territory capable of supporting the citizens of an empire. Some day that will be filled, and it will then be regarded as supremely important at Washington as well as Westminster how these Canadian millions—these men of the plains who know "how to ride and to shoot"—regard their neighbor to the south. In such a day, will the American Republic be much the gainer by her two islands in the Portland Canal which will perpetually remind Canada that, as late as 1903, British diplomacy was made to think it worth while to take them from a well-beloved colony and present them as a peace-offering to the American government as the price of its continued good humor?

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THE AMERICAN INVASION OF CANADA

BY HENRY F. COPE

WHILE we are trying to make ourselves believe that some future good citizens are coming in with the thousands of steerage passengers from Latin Europe to the United States we are apparently ignoring the fact that a great number of our best citizens are leaving us at one end of the country as these new ones come in at the other. A few years ago we boasted that Canada would become one with us by absorption, so many were there who crossed the border southbound; but, to-day, if figures indicate anything, it might be maintained that there is a tendency for the United States to be absorbed into the Dominion of Canada. To-day sees a larger number crossing the border into the land of the Union Jack than any day has ever seen coming in the opposite direction. There is a decided trek into western Canada and notably into Alberta and Assiniboia. Every train north-bound from Buffalo, Detroit, Grand Forks and Great Falls bears new settlers for the Dominion. The latest figures show 52,860 going in from the United States in a period of eight months. And since these returns the number has been rapidly increasing, not less than 10,562 being registered in one month at Winnipeg.

It is not only that large numbers are going; so far as that goes even larger numbers are coming in; the story is not told until you have measured these emigrants as well as counted them. They are of our best; sturdy agriculturalists of the Republic; men of the industrious and aggressive type, determined to better themselves, having the courage that fears neither labor, new experiences nor hardships. They carry out more than a few things done up in an old shawl; whole trainloads of people, wagons, horses, farm gear and goods have been conveyed over the Great Northern and the Canada & Great Northern into Alberta from the states immediately south of it. It is estimated that the value of property carried in during the eight months' period already mentioned was fully $20,000,000. Mormon settlements have moved *en masse* and almost *in toto* from different parts of Utah into Alberta, many trekking it overland through Idaho and Montana, while it was for some time no uncommon sight to see long strings of their white-covered wagons being borne northward on the trains, the families living in box cars *en route*.

These migrations of people seem to move in waves; New England laps into Ohio and Illinois, these two into Iowa and Nebraska, Missouri flows a great tidal wave into Montana, so that they have a saying there that "Montana is populated with the left wing of Pap Price's army," while Montana and all the western states are rolling up into western Canada. Thus there is a general movement west and

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HEREFORD CATTLE AT CRAM LAKE

northwest. It may be but part of that revised itinerary for the nations which reads, "Northwest the course of empire takes its way." We were well satisfied with that arrangement so long as its course had a terminus within the bounds of the Union. Now, at first sight, it does not appear an unmixed benefit when it means a loss of thousands of our best and most profitable citizens. The gain of Canada must be ultimately our gain also; but we would rather have it for our own first and last and directly.

When the natural question is asked, Why this trek? the answer is, in the main, a very simple and plain one, Wheat. The farmer, the rancher and the man from the city are not leaving the Republic because they are dissatisfied with its institutions; it is not a question of taxation or of liberty of conscience or of person; generally speaking it is not a question of climate or of healthfulness. The world wants more wheat and the farmer is willing to meet the world's want because he wants the world's money. The fertile, wheat-bearing lands on this side are all taken up; many of them have been almost exhausted by reckless disregard of crop rotation; the time approaches when we reach the limit of the present wheat possibilities of the United States. But only a short distance away and under general conditions that are scarcely distinguishable from our own, western Canada has still immense tracts of fertile, virgin soil. It is not strange that men who have long struggled on this side to make ends meet should look longingly across the border when they read such facts as the following: One man came into western Canada and bought a quarter section (160 acres) for $200; the cost of breaking the soil, seeding, all labor, harvesting the grain and delivering to the elevators, including all up-keep for the season, when added to the purchase price of the farm made a total expenditure of $2,000; his yield of 7,500 bushels of wheat sold for $4,100, leaving him, in addition to his increase of wealth by the possession of the farm, tools, etc., the richer by $2,100.

The experimental farm at Brandon, Manitoba, places the average cost of raising an acre of wheat at $7.87 and the average selling value of the same at $15; in many cases the latter has been doubled by yields of over fifty bushels to the acre.

Besides the ranchers, laborers and day-workers are drawn to these great wheat-fields by the needs of the ranchers for help; they are eagerly offering $40 and board a month to men to work in the harvest fields. While able-bodied men are earning $8 a month on farms in Tennessee (I know of one instance of a man's

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HORSES ON A STOCK FARM IN ALBERTA

hiring himself and his wife to work for a farmer there for one year for $40), in Missouri for $12 a month, and for $15 in New York, it is not strange that they will move on, when they can, into Montana where they can make from $2.50 to $3 a day in the hay season, or from $35 to $45 a month by the year, or into western Canada where the wages are about as good and the chances of becoming independent are much better.

Some Americans move on into Canada because they find there a larger proportion of English-speaking people. There are great valleys in our western states where every ranch is held by a Dane or a Swede. They are good people; they make first-class citizens, yet the old stock American longs for other companions and neighbors.

Many of the men who are going into Alberta and Assiniboia are of the type who feel crowded in a state like Montana, for example, where there is a density of population of almost two to the square mile. They like to be in the front of movements of people, where they can look out and not see too many about them. One man recently complained that he felt as though people were getting too thick about him when a family moved in and located three miles from his cabin.

While eastern Assiniboia attracts the agriculturalist, the western half of the district and the adjoining district of Alberta appeal to the stockman and the dairy farmer. From Texas, western Kansas, Wyoming and Montana come both cattle and herd men, some by trains and some moving slowly overland, into Alberta. Great companies are being organized in Denver and Salt Lake to gather bands of cattle, take them from the plains and fatten them about Calgary and Macleod. Sheep also enter into the situation. In Wyoming and Montana the long-continued feud between the sheepmen and the cattlemen seems to be going in favor of the former. The time was when there were no sheep on the great grazing grounds; now they are everywhere, for the wool pays well. And wherever the sheep have grazed, the ground is worthless for cattle; there is nothing left for them and even the next year they will starve on the trail of the sheep. Horsemen and cattlemen have fought the sheep invasion with firearms and fences; but the gentle lamb is nevertheless the present possessor of the benches and feeding grounds. No words can convey the disgust of a true cattleman or a cowboy for a sheep country. He simply will not live in it and so he puts his cattle or his horses on the train and takes them north to Edmonton and turns them loose there.

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PLOWING IN THE CANADIAN WEST

Alberta has about one hundred and six thousand square miles of open high plains, broken by the valleys of the many large streams flowing east and becoming more rolling and ragged as you go west. The bottoms and bench lands abound in natural hay and bunch grass, furnishing an ideal all-the-year-round grazing for horses and cattle. The bands stay out in all the seasons and it is scarcely ever necessary to feed.

Southern Alberta makes the best range country, both on account of its natural features and because of its general proximity to the railroad. The climate is also ideal for stock, as well as for man. The snow seldom remains long on the ground, being quickly wiped away by the gentle Chinook, most wonderful and welcome of all winds. The temperature varies from 6°— to 60°+, a very favorable contrast with the Montana and Wyoming plains, varying from 50°— to 80°+. It is hardly necessary to-day to say that stock fed on natural grass look quite different from those that are meadow-fed in the East. Grass-fed steers, raised on the open range, without housing or yard-feeding, fetch $40 and up for three-years and up to $54 for four-years. The market for beef is easily accessible, the railroad takes it to the East as far as the coast, some goes up into the Yukon, and a very considerable part of it goes to the Orient by way of Vancouver.

Horsemen and cattlemen who have been up into Alberta with bands of their beasts have come back enthusiastic over the country, while visitors have been charmed with the climate, delighted with the people and almost weaned from their allegiance to the Union by the marked courtesies of the railroad and the government. A winter spent in the district will generally lead to a revision of one's conception of Canada in general and of the

Mean Annual Temperature by Months.

	Jan.	Feb.	March.	April.	May.	June.	July.	August.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.
Chicago.....	23	25	34	46	56	66	72	71	64	53	38	29
Calgary	10	7	23	36	47	55	59	57	51	39	26	19

It should be remembered that, while the average monthly precipitation at Chicago is 3.50 inches, that at Calgary is less than 1 inch.

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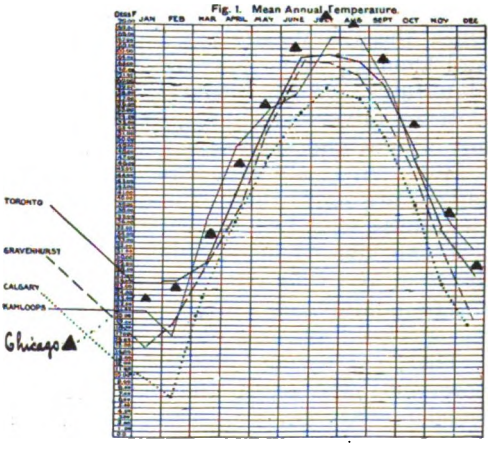
HARVESTING AT INDIAN HEAD

Northwest in particular. Most people imagine our Lady of the Snows as presiding over a great barren and desolate immensity of white, snow and ice bound. The winter is cold; but you can not arrive at an estimate of the cold—by which the East means discomfort—by reading the thermometer on these western plains. The writer has ridden thirty miles in a "jerky" with 48° below and suffered less than in crossing the street in genial southern New York, and he has ridden many miles horseback, with the mercury hiding down under the 20° below mark, without the least thought of its being really very cold. The sky is so clear and deep a blue, the sun so bright, the air so dry that a man seems to breathe in wine; he feels as strong as an ox and as vigorous as a mountain lion; and to the full-blooded man these things count as much as the opportunities of making fortune in this new country.

Northern Alberta is suited to the raising of grain and the development of large dairy farms. Oats furnish the stable crop, yielding from one hundred bushels, of fifty pounds each, up to 114; and in ordinary years an average yield of seventy-five bushels. Fall wheat has been grown there, an ordinary yield being forty bushels.

Supposing Joseph Chamberlain's colony-fostering, home-protecting policy should prevail in Great Britain, what an advantage the farmer with his big wheat fields on the north side of the forty-ninth parallel would enjoy in the British market over the man on the other side of that line! This consideration may have had nothing to do with the movement into the Canadian Northwest in the past; but it is likely to have great influence in the future.

One thing, at least, that the United States can and will do which will tend very largely to offset this movement outward from her confines, is the redemption



CALGARY'S TEMPERATURE COMPARED WITH CHICAGO'S

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of her arid lands. In 1900 there were many square miles of bench land on the west side of the Beaverhead valley in southern Montana absolutely valueless save for some thin grazing; to-day this area is covered with rich grain fields, producing this season over seventy thousand bushels of oats, valued at fully $35,000. Private enterprise, by a simple reservoir scheme, gave to this waste and worthless land an earning power sufficient to support easily thirty-five families. This is but one instance among many; and the work of the individual is but a prophecy and promise of what is to be when irrigation begins in earnest. When these immense stretches of desert and dry benches are reclaimed, men will have new places in their own land in which they will have both room and opportunity to wrest fortune from the soil.

Perhaps the advertising propaganda pursued by the Canadian government, the energetic measures they are using to fill up their great West, the assiduous courtesy and helpfulness shown to the prospective immigrant or visitor and the pains taken for the welfare of the new settler, may, in part, account for the movement in that direction. The Department of Agriculture and Immigration has something to do besides distributing free packages of mis-labeled seeds to people who do not want them; it makes a business of publishing the advantages of living in its new West. For years it has by pamphlet and picture kept before the public of Great Britain the possibilities of fortune in the new lands of the Dominion; now it is doing the same thing in the United States. Once these new lands were in Ontario and Quebec; now they are in the Rocky Mountains. Add business energy and skill in advertising to splendid natural advantages and success is certain.

But even if all these and other advantages were ours, there would still be the thousands who feel the call of the wild, who can love no home unless it is on the frontier, and who will ever push on to lay the foundations on which others can build the splendid empires of later days.

There can be no doubt to the impartial observer that western Canada offers that freedom—by no means, however, that license which many seek on the frontier—that roomy, out-door life in which, whether fortune is found or not, manhood is made.

Western Canada is distinctively for the agriculturist; it is estimated that forty-six per cent of the whole population of the Dominion is engaged wholly in the work of the farm and the field; it has well been called the "world's great bread-basket." There are few manufacturing centers, practically none in western Canada and, outside of British Columbia, there are very few mining interests. There lies the great contrast between Montana on one side of the international boundary and Alberta on the other; the state of Montana is to-day paralyzed by the hand of one man, a speculator in mines. No such catastrophe can come to a country devoted to farming and stock-raising. Men are realizing more than ever that the wealth of a land must lie principally neither in immense capitalization of industries nor in bonanza discoveries of precious metals, but in the steady toil that constantly produces the necessities of life from the soil and places them within the reach of the people. The life of the farmer is not what it used to be; he is a hayseed no longer. With modern facilities of communication and with the uplift of his aspirations through education his life on the farm, even though it be in a rough log cabin on the wind-swept prairies, need lack none of the conveniences, the comforts and even luxuries of the home in the city. When a man can go into Alberta and buy land for less than $2 an acre that would sell for at least $100 an acre in Indiana or Illinois he knows that he is going to find a sufficiency of compensations for the loneliness he must endure for a few years. Nor is the loneliness to last long with neighbors pouring in at the rate of nearly one hundred thousand a year. The world's clamor for grain will quickly populate these territories. The truth is, however, that they are but little if at all better adapted to agriculture than our own far western states; only we think that if we have called a state the Bonanza State it would be a crime to endeavor to make it the Barley State, for example; better let it perish with the glorious memory of a mining prosperity that once was than prosper in an agricultural prosperity that now is.

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RANCHING NEAR CALGARY

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CALIFORNIA IN WINTER

BY

W. S. HARWOOD

I HAVE read somewhere that when Emerson returned from his far-western tour he remarked concerning the Yosemite valley, "It was the only thing that came up to the brag."

Truly these Californians are seldom at a loss for a word of praise for their state. They are the most intensely loyal people in the world. Even a slight criticism of their wonderful state they stand but testily; you will get off well if they do not train a whole battery of rhetorical thirteen-inches upon you.

Yet, when all is said and done, when all due allowance is made for native exuberance and a certain insularity which these people slip into unawares, after all, it is in many ways the most wonderful commonwealth in the Union. You may not live here a twelvemonth without recognizing this, and you grow to greater leniency as you listen to the native hyperbole.

A JEWFISH WEIGHING 350 POUNDS
More than six feet long, caught with rod and reel

Take it to-day, in the midst of this wintry weather, when all the northern earth is white, how fares it in the land of gold?

You may find snow in the extreme northern part, to be sure, though mainly upon the higher mountains, but in the city of San Francisco, which is well to the north, you will be apt to be as warm, or warmer, than in July. Even north of San Francisco the oranges and lemons grow in localities far below the frost line. Follow the winter down that vast valley which forms the central portion of the state lying between the two noble ranges of mountains which stretch from north to south, and you will be eager to stop at many a sunny spot. When you reach the break in the ranges where a wall runs across from the Sierra Nevada to the Coast Range, from which variant spurs strike off to right and left, you will be at the entrance to Southern California, as it is known to the winter-time tourists of the East.

To-day, in the midst of December's coldness, I suppose you may gather almost any sort of rose that grows in your garden in Los Angeles, pink, or white, or yellow, or red, blooming in rank profusion out of doors, unvexed by frost or snows. To-morrow you may be in San Diego, still further to the south, where, along the great green mesas, you may fill your basket with wild violets, while in the distance the higher peaks of the San Jacinto are white with a noble mantle of snow.

If there be a laughing, blue-eyed eastern girl at your side, spending her first winter in this winterless land, it is ten to one you will hear her say, as she scents the snow afar: "Oh, if I only *could* go skating!" But you, with mayhap a slower pulse, look back to shut-in families, to wolfish winds, to days of cold and sleet and slush, to thaw and freeze, and freeze

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A CALIFORNIA ROAD IN WINTERTIME

and thaw, and the raw rasping air, and the twinges of rheumatism and the hints of pneumonia. Then you turn your eyes upward and the heavens are blue, you look around you and the earth is fair and green, and the wild flowers, no less than their city cousins in the distance, are springing up into rare beauty. You watch the sun go down in the midst of a glory that seems not of this world, while up the valleys and the canyons and far against the foothills that lead to the mountains of Mexico creeps a wondrous lavender light, deepening to purple as the night comes on.

So one day slips into another, month by month, with now and again (to admonish you that you have not yet quite reached Paradise) a gust of rain that sweeps the lower mountains free from snow and sends the waters that should have been caught and conserved, in raging wasteful torrents down to the blue sea. A brilliant burst of sunshine—that is the day; a million stars and a moon like a sun and a cool dark earth and a dawn of surpassing splendor—that is the night.

But ah, how many there are who are ill! You can scarcely find a family, it seems to me, in all this vast southern California, some member of which has not left "the East" on account of poor health. I do not now recall a single exception among the residents whom I have met. This is as it should be, I suppose, even though it be sometimes depressing to those who are well; but California is not yet a series of sanatoria. It is a prime place for well people, no less than for those who are sick.

What these Californians need to do, winter and summer, is to quit talking about real estate, stop the everlasting civic strife, give over the thought that there will ever be great cities in this region, put the knife into all booms and splurges, and give themselves to a study of the question: How can we make our cities the most attractive cities on the globe?

Nature has given more than her share. She has put the splendid mountains in place, spread a noble blue sea at their feet, given a climate such as no other region on earth can match, winters and summers of equal beauty; she has provided for the enrichment and adornment of city and hamlet and country place.

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IN THE COURT OF A SOUTHERN CALIFORNIA HOTEL

But she did not provide these real estate sharks, nor these slovenly, slouchy boarding-house keepers, nor these stuffy, ramshackle, down-at-the-heel apartments for rent, where festers the meanest and nastiest lot of furniture that ever escaped the junkshop and where disease lurks in its most dreadful form.

There are manly men who sell land—if you run across them; there are delightful places to live in—if you know how to find them; there are honorable house renters who will not hold you up—if you know how to find them; there are many people in southern California who are most charming people and rich in hospitality; but, unless you have a long purse, find out before you come here where you are going to live; that is to say, if you have any desire to be decent while you are here and to carry home as good a pair of lungs as you brought.

If these people would take advantage of what nature has done for them—excuse me a moment while I try to catch that flea! Nature has done some things I don't approve of, and making fleas is one of them—if these people should take nature at her word and go on hand in hand with her, making these resorts into Nices and Mentones and Genoas, only vastly more beautiful because of more beautiful material with which to work, then this region would become more renowned than anything that skirts the Mediterranean.

Still, even as matters now stand, the tide of travel sets in from the East each autumn stronger and stronger. As this article is being written the reports indicate that all past records in the Pacific tourist trade will be broken in the season of 1903-'04.

Around one of these great wintertime summer hotels that are springing up so rapidly in southern California to accommodate this steadily increasing stream of traffic, you may see many types of Americans: the *nouveau riche*, spending lavishly the money somebody else has earned; the taciturn man of millions made by hard knocks, quibbling over a "two-bit" tip with a bellboy; the broken-down minister; the people of small means who do not belong at the hotel, but who like to make people think they do; all sorts of professional men; foreigners accustomed

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to the delightful, though treacherous, climate of southern France, who come to scoff but remain to pray; thousands of healthseekers; men and women who are not really ill, but whose nerves have been disturbed by overwork, or under-exercise, or what not; fashionable men and unfashionable women and their counterparts —all manner of people from all quarters of the earth, not forgetting to mention the gamblers. I know of one hotel, one of the largest in the world, located in this region, where men, women and I don't know but children, gamble by day and night, gamble for such stakes, so rumor has it, as almost approach those of some of the more "respectable" stock exchanges. It is a wretched blot upon these resorts, this miserable sin of gambling. Who knows but that the people who gamble might erase it by stopping gambling themselves?

Is it really December?

Again and again you ask yourself the question. Again and again you wonder if this can be winter; or have you been asleep through the months of ice and snow, just awakening to the sun of spring?

In front of you is a row of stately palms, swinging their graceful fronds in the still air; down the brown street cluster on cluster of scarlet poinsetta blossoms, the Christmas bloom of the land of the sun, flaunt their barbaric colors; across the way a thicket of rose trees, with a very wilderness of blossoms, scents the air; here and there the purple bougainvillea, quite like the wistaria you may have seen clambering upon the houses in the beautiful old city of New Orleans, mantles an unsightly bit of architecture; over all, the blue sky, through all, the gracious, scented air, in all, the restfulness and peace that fit you like a garment. Out beyond the avenue of palms and the rows of green pepper trees nodding gracefully in the soft air, and the groups of the stately eucalyptus you may catch glimpses of the sea, and upon its blue breast, riding lightly at anchor, a group of wicked battleships.

Whatever their temperaments or their tempers, these thousands of people who

ALONG A CITY STREET IN DECEMBER

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ALONG THE BEACH WHEN THE SURF IS HIGH

come here from out the howling blizzard's grasp, will be less than human, or, better, more than human, if, after they have loafed a month in this gentle air, they are not calmer in their nerves, steadier in their speech, kindlier in their thoughts.

They tell of a rich Chicagoan who expressed his splendid span of horses out here in some sort of an equine palace car, together with a coachman who knew every kink and trick of the beautiful but fiery pair, a man who had the nerve and the muscle to drive them on the noisiest street of noise-cursed Chicago. Some time after the gentleman reached here he found one day that he could drive the horses down town all right himself. The next thing he knew his wife was driving them, and before three months had passed his little girl guided them down the steep hill into the heart of the town and tied them to a post, where they fell softly to sleep. So much for the relaxing influence of a climate which soothes but does not enervate.

PALMS NEAR SAN DIEGO, PLANTED 1769

Doubtless as time passes eastern people will more and more turn to California as a place in which to live. There are three main classes who are interested in the state aside from those who are seeking health:

1. The wealthy tourists who have heard of the wonderful winters, of the splendid scenery, of the great Yosemite and the matchless Sierras. In this class will be found those, steadily increasing in number, who come to California to live half their lives; that is to say, they build beautiful winter homes here, fit them up exquisitely, live in them from November to April, and spend the balance of the year in the East or in Europe.

2. The very old people or those approaching old age. It seems to be a well-established fact that in the region with San Diego as a center, and perhaps this is equally true of Los Angeles, Santa Barbara and Redlands, elderly people are practically assured of from ten to fifteen years more life than in a more rigorous, and, hence, more dangerous climate. The reason is found in the fact that sudden

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changes in temperature are unknown, the temperature, winter and summer, in the region of San Diego varying but a few degrees, rendering the climate particularly agreeable and preventing largely the disease to which so many elderly people succumb, pneumonia. It is a paradise for the aged.

3. Those who come with small sums of hard-earned money to make for themselves a new home. This latter class is very rapidly increasing and the number promised for the present season by the railroads is larger than ever before. Out of this very large number very many who come to praise will stay to curse. Gold does not grow on orange trees or in lemon orchards, or in walnut groves, or in any one of the many fascinating light occupations of this favored land. The man who expects to get rich out of an orange ranch when he knows absolutely nothing of the many-sided occupation of fruit growing and fruit marketing, would better secure his ticket to the poor farm before he leaves the East. This state has not yet reached the fringe of its possibilities in fruit and nut raising, in vegetables and grains and grasses, but these things come by good sense, by well-directed knowledge, by experience.

In summer the region round about San Diego is as popular a place as it is in winter. The people from farther inland near the deserts find the heat terrific during the summer. Thousands of people from New Mexico, Arizona and various parts of California, come to this spot more favored by nature in the matter of climate than any other region on the globe. But I fancy the easterners will always reserve the winter for California; they have the spring, summer and autumn at home, more beautiful in certain regions than anything to be found in California.

You will not find everything in Southern California. You will miss the wide stretches of green in the open places, far removed from the dusty cities, the noble trees, the clear streams of water, the blue lakes nestled in among the pine-clad mountains; you will miss that splendid miracle, the change of the seasons, when your whole nature comes into closer touch with the great mother heart of nature than at any other time in all the year.

AN ORANGE ORCHARD

Yes, you will miss much; but when you have been here a year, when month after month of rare and beautiful weather blend into each other, when the sea woos you and the flowers charm you and the brown mountains beckon you and the soft air soothes you, after a year has passed you find there are some compensations for the lovely things you have left behind you.

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IN THE SICILIAN HILLS

BY

ROBERT HERRICK

AUTHOR OF "THE REAL WORLD," "THE GOSPEL OF FREEDOM"

MY host stepped to the gate of his villa and merely beckoned to one of the small boys who were lying like lizards along the sunny wall. As soon as they saw us, these ragamuffins of Taormina chirped in chorus: "a *soldo, messer,* a penny, a *soldino, messer!*" They swarmed about us like summer flies, thrusting their dirty paws into our faces.

"Luigi," said my host, ignoring the general clamor. "*Venga!*" Then he closed the gate of the courtyard upon the outraged mob. "Luigi, this gentleman *forestiero* wishes to make a *giro* over the mountains, to Racuja, Francavilla, Savoca! You will guide him on the morrow?"

I wondered that of all the little lizards outside my host had picked this one, small, thin, with furtive brown eyes. I should have taken one of the older, more hardy specimens, to guide me in my three days' scramble over the Sicilian hills. Luigi looked stunted and half starved, one eye badly inflamed with the prevalent ophthalmia. But the well eye was bright enough, and his small face was more serious than his age might lead one to expect. It was arranged that the next morning at sunrise Luigi was to be in the piazza at the fountain, near the east gate of the town. Then I shook hands with my host, thanking him for the interest he had taken in my expedition. Luigi and I left the villa at the same time, and were greeted by cries of envy and entreaty from the gamins outside. They buzzed about us, puncturing the small Luigi with jeers and questions. He took this attention serenely; it was evidently not a new dignity, that of guiding the *forestieri.*

"He knows all that country like his father's garden," my friend had said in his praise. "And he's a good chap. He came from somewhere up there among the hills, and he's a better sort than any of these town fleas. . . ."

The next morning Luigi was sitting on the edge of the fountain at the east gate, dabbling his toes in a pool of muddy water. At sight of me he ran forward, took my coat and package of luncheon, and, with a short "*buon' giorn',*" started off at a round pace up the stone-paved mountain path. Before we were well out of the town I concluded that my small guide had all the strength he needed for our expedition.

Our path, after leaving the old Dominican convent, now turned into the town jail, skirted the curve of a green hill on the way to Mola, rising in long easy loops between the lemon orchards. Already at this hour the peasants were at their work in the fields, although the sun had but just breasted the distant straits of Messina and tipped Monte Venere on our path ahead. The barefooted, brown figures—men and women, indistinguishable at a little distance—raised their faces from the lumps of dirt they were hacking and eyed us curiously. Now and then one of the laboring figures hopped up beside the wall, and grinningly wished us a "*buon' giorn'.*" I replied, but as for my little guide, he never showed by a turn of the head that he had seen a living being. We walked silently, except for the click of my nailed shoes on the stone pavement. After an hour of this sort of thing I grew tired of chasing the noiseless brown heels some thirty paces ahead of me and sat down by the roadside where the valley opened out into a lovely broad panorama. I did not call to my fleet guide, but he divined my act and paused, still thirty paces ahead, waiting for the foreign gentleman to get his breath.

"Luigi," I said, "it is a fine morning."

"*Si, signor,*" he admitted politely.

"Will it be hot when we get beyond Mola?"

"Who can tell? Perhaps," he replied, guardedly.

Evidently I should get little from him but the service he had contracted to per-

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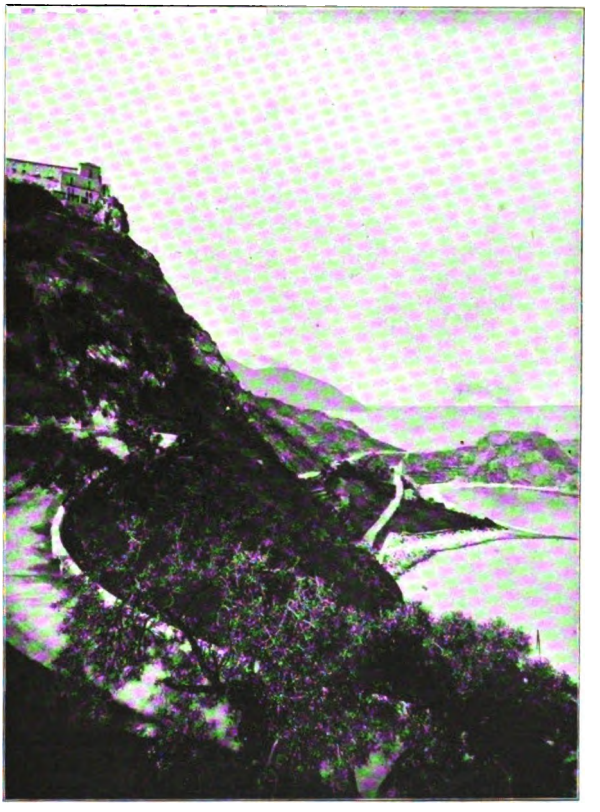
form. I turned to the lovely prospect before me. Beneath and above stretched the brilliant vine-clad hills, fresh with the dew of the March morning. The valley we were mounting opened into the island from the curve of the Sicilian shore just east of Taormina. To the left on a little pinnacle of rock gleamed the mountain town of Mola, a town in memory only, with bold gray rock walls and towers. The path we were on was the sole road to this rocky fastness, which, from Taormina, is a mere dot against the blue heavens. Our path lay around Monte Venere on the other side of the valley. I could see it, a faint streak in the olive green above me, curving in and out across the higher land.

Hillsides and valley were alike one blooming mass of fertile orchards and gardens. The little farms were terraced up to the very summit of Monte Venere. Not a square yard of soil had been left untilled, until the eye reached the limestone ridge of the mountain. Above all was the silvery blue of the Sicilian heavens.



THE CURVE OF THE SICILIAN SHORE

"Buon' giorn,' signorino!" The greeting came from a woman who had overtaken us noiselessly. She carried a large bundle nicely poised on her head. Across it was slung her shoes, which she had dispensed with, evidently, after leaving the town gate. She deposited her bundle on a convenient corner of the wall not far from where I was resting, and placing her hands on her broad hips smiled sympathetically at me.

"It is a long way up the hill," she said sighing and smiling at the same time.

She was a large young woman, and still handsome, in spite of her bad teeth and somewhat overdeveloped figure. She was probably twenty or more, and at an age when the *contadini* are already middle-aged married women bending under heavy labor, she seemed light-hearted, even gay. She said a low word to my guide, which I failed to catch. Luigi dug one toe in the gravel and shrugged his shoulders for all answer. She began to abuse him in a clear, sing-song voice, but I failed to understand her dialect. At last, giving up Luigi with an expressive shrug, she turned her attention to me. Where was I going? Would I not stop at her house up there above on my road? Many *forestieri* came out to her *casa* to see the view—yes, and to see her and her friends dance the *tarentella.*

Usually the Sicilian woman met with thus on the mountains is as shy as a deer; she flies at the sight of a stranger. And when she talks easily it is not a good sign. This woman had large, squarely-chiselled features, curving full lips and abundant hair that folded thick across her forehead. Something about the face and figure teased the imagination with the thought that this part of Sicily is still half Greek. The hair, the firm modelling of the face, the sensuous curl of the lips, they were all Greek. In the mongrel horde of Sicily it well might be!

Luigi started up the path as if to

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signify that he had nothing to do with any casual conversation on the road. I prepared to follow him, when around the bend in the road below came a small child, laboring painfully over the large stones, weeping quietly to herself. At the sight of the crying child the woman called shrilly: "Come! Trot along! Little one, *Camina!*"

The child cried louder, disturbing the morning peace of the hillside with its plaint.

"The child suffers from the road," I said.

"Ah, little whiner," the woman replied. "I am dead with carrying her!"

When the little one had toiled near us, the woman grasped her hurriedly by the arm, adjusted her bundle, and followed after me on the Mola road. Luigi seemed to have redoubled his pace, and I hastened after my fleeting guide. As we wound back and forth across the breast of the upper hill, I could get glimpses from time to time of the handsome woman beneath me. She had put the child down again, and the little one was already lost to sight. I could hear the faint childish sobs coming upward from somewhere among the peaceful orchards. But the woman, instead of waiting for the child, hurried after us, calling from time to time:

"*Camina, piccola! Camina!* Hurry, trot, little one!"

So we journeyed upward until we reached the thin line of limestone rock that divided us from the higher valley beyond. The country of the inland valley was wilder, more desolate than anything we had traversed. At some distance up the mountain side there was a little stone hut. That was the only dwelling in sight. Across on the other side a flock of sheep was feeding. The tinkle of the bells could be heard faintly. I wished to pause in the welcome coolness, but Luigi was already threading his way up the opposite hillside. He was nearly at the summit before I overtook him, and was sitting perched on a little block of stone, apparently enjoying the prospect beneath us, the first distant view we had had of Mount Etna.

"Luigi," I said. "Why so fast? I wished to stop at the *signora's casa* down there and get a glass of wine."

"No good wine can be had there," the little fellow replied enigmatically. "If your excellency is rested, we had better be getting on," he urged, jumping up.

"Luigi!" I exclaimed, thoroughly outraged by this unseemly haste, "I am going down there. I won't be dragged on this way!"

I could see the woman panting breathlessly up the path. She halted at the rude sign-board, "*Camin' da Salita,*" which marked the roadside *locanda* to which she had invited me. Her eyes searched the road above, looking for her lost customer. The sobs of the child could still be heard faintly. At last, descrying us perched on the hill above, she called out something to Luigi. For answer he looked stonily along our path and even rose as if to start on. He had no part in this, his attitude said plainly. "Luigi," I asked, "does that woman dance the *tarentella?*"

He nodded.

"Does she dance it well?"

"Well enough," the boy admitted. "She and the others."

I began a catechism, to detain him, curious to get him to talk.

"How old are you, Luigi?"

"Twelve."

"Have you brothers?"

He held up two fingers.

"And sisters?"

"Eight, and the smallest is three days old," he answered with some animation.

"And are your sisters married?"

He shook his head. They all lived at home over there across the green slope of Monte Venere, all but one.

"That is our property!" He pointed to a dot of green earth near the sky line of the opposite hill. The property, an acre of olive trees and *gnocchi*, was scarcely bigger than a good-sized handkerchief!

"My father is a *contadin'*, a farmer," he explained cheerfully and proudly. "We bought that property just recently. It is a good piece."

"You attend school?" I asked idly.

"No, signore."

"Have you ever been to school?"

He shook his head and explained: "It costs two *lire* a month."

He added with some embarassment that his father never had had the forty cents to spare.

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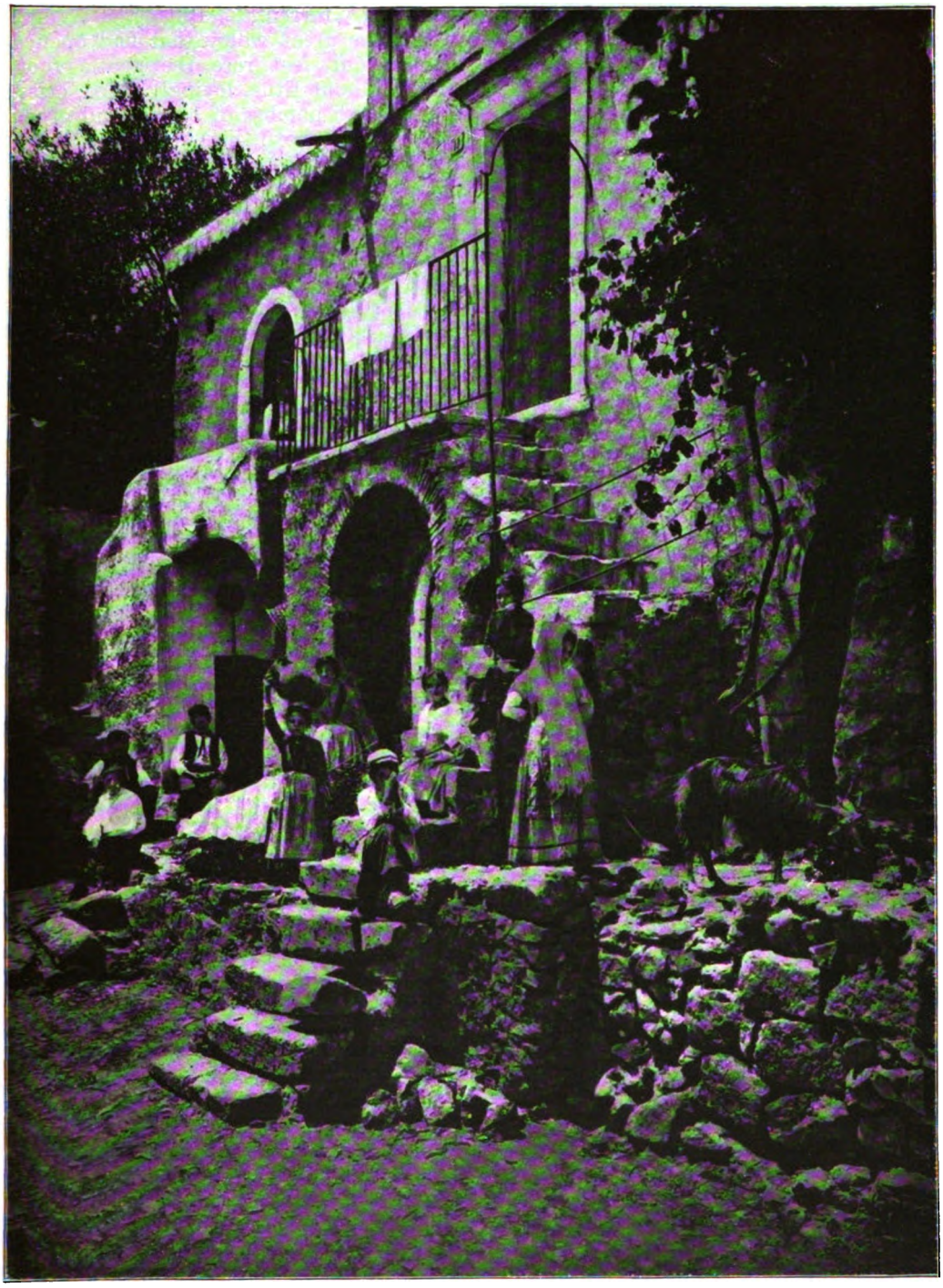

A PEASANT'S HOUSE NEAR TAORMINA

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TAORMINA

"You can not read or write, then?" I asked severely, "or do sums?"

"No, *signore,*" he answered gently. "I can do nothing. I have no learning."

He began to chuck pebbles into the path below. The handsome woman we had outstripped was toiling after us. She had deposited her baby and her bundle in some spot, probably in the house I had seen, and was following us.

"Come, sir," Luigi almost commanded, noticing the woman.

A suspicion suddenly darted into my mind. "Is that your sister?" I asked.

He nodded and murmured yes.

"And that is her little one?"

He nodded again.

"She doesn't live at home?"

He shook his head. So that was the situation! The beautiful Greek sister danced the *tarentella* for strangers, up here in this mountain roadside inn. Yet that was manifestly not all of the story. These people are usually most loyal to one another, and the woman's mode of earning her living would not necessarily estrange her from her family. Luigi's strange obstinacy, his apparent determination to take me by this place without allowing me to go into his sister's *casa* I could not explain. I was half-minded to follow the prompting of my curiosity and descend the hill a little way to the woman's *locanda.* But something alert and mysterious in Luigi's little brown eyes deterred me. I felt that I should do better if I followed his will.

"Lead on," I said.

A few minutes more, and we were at the highest point of our path. This was a little rocky precipice jutting out from the hillside, from which the *locanda* had taken its name. A little circular pinnacle of rock, enough to stand on and hang from, and then five hundred feet or more sheer descent, to the stony bed of the mountain torrent. But the view! Across the great valley that had opened beneath our feet rose the gentle foothills of Mount Etna, lovingly tilled, crisscrossed with patches of bronze and green crops. And above this, broad and lofty, towered the great white head of the silent volcano. Not wholly tamed, however, for a thin filament of vapor rose from the tiptop of its head, circled about the crown of the mountain in a fluffy cloud, then floated away to the southward, off into the Mediterranean.

It was a good spot for a pipe, and I stretched myself lazily on the bit of ground.

"Luigi," I asked idly, "Would you like to have learning? Know how to read and write?"

"That, sir, is for others," he answered stolidly.

"And how about your sick eye?"

"The doctor says that it will get well. It's been troubled a long time."

"Let me look at it."

I could never tell just how it happened! Perhaps the small boy's movement disturbed the stability of the stones on which we were resting, or I may have thrown myself carelessly over the edge and lost my balance. I found myself slipping rapidly down that declivity in the direction of the rocky brook bed, hundreds of feet below.

"*Piano, piano*—softly, *signor,*" Luigi called from above. But it was too late. I had no further control over my movements. In a cloud of sand and rocks I plowed swiftly down the precipice. Then suddenly I caught. The little rocks gathered under my heels, or a tuft of bush temporarily arrested my flight. I did not dare to move a muscle for fear that I should again set in motion the glissade.

"Lie still," my guide commanded. "I can reach you."

He seemed to disappear. I no longer heard his voice. I hung there in a great solitude, like Tantalus, stretched at full length on my back, gazing off into the misty depths of the heavens. The only terrestrial thing in my range of vision was the vapor-crowned head of Etna, which gathered august clouds to itself, then

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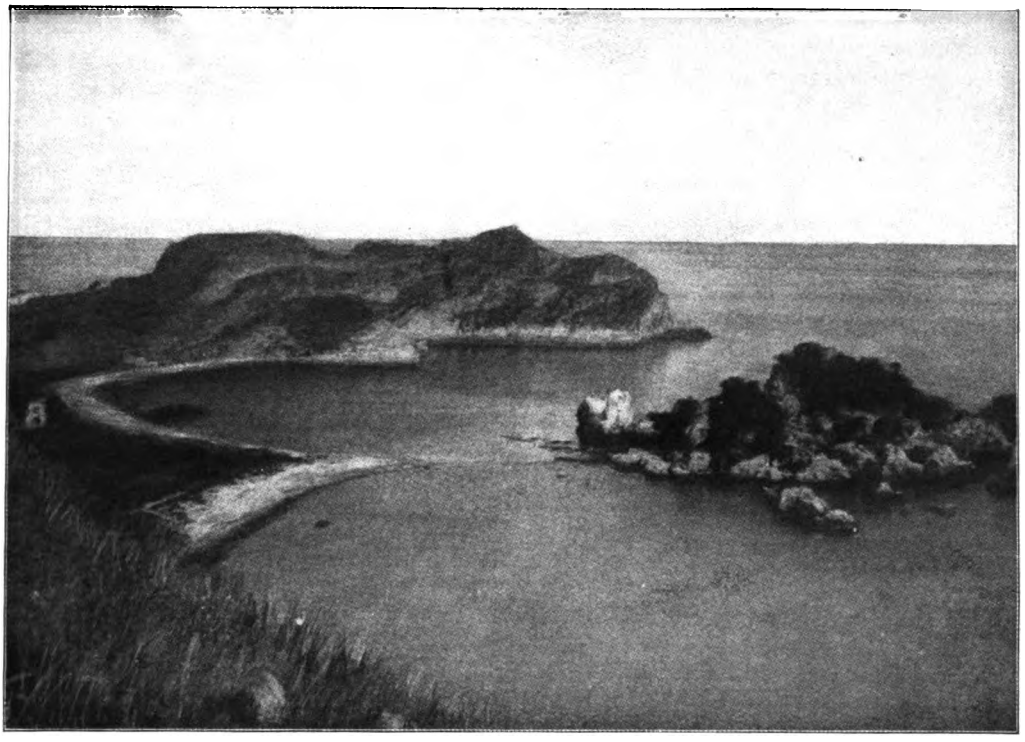

THE ROCKY SHORE BELOW TAORMINA

dispersed them. I did not dare to raise my head or turn my face. Sometimes I closed my eyes, and then I felt that I was swimming in the broad clouds, hovering above the ancient crater of Etna.

After a time I heard a faint noise like a tread of a mouse; then a pebble or two rolled against my arms.

"Lie still, sir," Luigi called from somewhere very near my head. He was creeping down toward me, crawling lightly at the risk of shooting over the precipice, and pausing every moment to allow the sand and pebbles disturbed by his course to settle.

"I am nearly there," he murmured just above me. "If you will stay very still, I can knot you with this cord. That will hold you for a time, until I can get help."

It seemed hours before he had me tied about the shoulders and had crept back to the firm land above where he could anchor an end of the rope. Even then he called to me not to stir, for the rope was old and weak and might not hold the full weight of my heavy body, if the strain were put upon it all at once. He would get help from the neighborhood. I understood enough of his repeated exhortations not to take any risks with the old piece of heavy twine, for it was nothing more than that, to which he had made me fast.

There followed endless hours, it seemed to me, while the hot sun climbed above me and shone down directly into my face. I was compelled to close my eyes and lie patiently grilling. Later, it must have been nearly afternoon, clouds seemed to gather from the misty spaces of the heavens, and presently there was no more sun. Luigi must have gone a long way to find help! And, I reflected, there, not half an hour below us, was his sister's *locanda* which we had passed, where surely he could find some man and a stout rope.

The clouds had piled themselves into a pyramid, shutting out the tip of the volcano. The atmosphere began to feel damp. A sea-turn was coming in. Finally I heard voices above me, and especially one woman's voice, high and clear, prolonged on the last notes, which I seemed to recognize. Then there was a confused chatter between her and several others. I

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did not recognize Luigi's voice. After a time they set to work, and very shortly had me up beside them on the solid ground. I was too sore and stiff to stand at once, and while I rubbed my limbs, I examined my rescuers. The Greek-looking woman was there, sure enough! She was dressed in a gay blue-colored bodice, very much ornamented. She smiled at me familiarly like an old acquaintance, and commiserated me. I caught something of reproach in her voice for not having stayed at her house. The others were two young men, rather hard looking, very badly dressed in dirty cast-off city clothes. They were apparently not farmers or shepherds, and did not dress like the country people. Luigi was not there! When I asked for him, they told me vaguely that he had gone away, where they could not make me understand.

One of the men suggested that the gentleman should descend to the *locanda,* where he could satisfy his thirst at least. The woman nodded encouragement. There seemed nothing better to do. We descended to the little, white-washed house that I had seen in the morning. The two men and the hostess crowded into the small front room, where there was a table and several chairs. I ordered some wine and food for myself and the men who had helped me out of my predicament. After I had had something to eat, if Luigi did not appear, I could retrace my steps to the town. I did not particularly like the *locanda,* now that I was in it. It was dirty and miserable, of course. But it had the squalor, not of common rustic ignorance so much as of rustic debauch. Well, it would cost me a couple of dollars or so to get out of the place. So I ate my bread and cold meat and drank the thin, acrid wine, while the two men eyed me like ferrets. They had taken a little wine, out of courtesy, but were too much interested in my movements to eat or drink. When I asked the woman about Luigi, she was vague and unresponsive. He had deserted; had gone back to the mountains above; had gone down to Taormina.

When I prepared to leave the place, I met with a storm of reproaches, but I persisted, having first placed ten lire in the padrona's hand. Then she threw open the door. The night was a sheet of darkness; the rain blew in our faces.

"Would his excellency venture forth on a night like that?"

His excellency certainly could not! So there was nothing for it but to go back to the close little room. The men went into the back room, but the woman sat opposite me watching my every movement. Once I rose and strolled to the rear of the room where a door opened into the back part of the house. The Greek woman gently pulled my sleeve, closing the door with the other hand. I returned to the table and sat down.

"Will you dance for me?" I asked, hoping to amuse myself a few moments.

"The morning was the time for the dance!" she replied with a mysterious smile.

Behind her in the wall of the room there was a large window, which evidently gave light to a closet or inner room. As the woman spoke I seemed to see in the murky depths of this glass window the faint outline of a man's face. The woman noticing my stare looked around. The face had disappeared.

One dreary hour after another went by while outside the spring tempest howled. Once my hostess left the room, called by one of the young men. While she was gone I saw again that man's face slowly creeping upward across the pane of glass until the full countenance was in view. It seemed to hang there expectantly, then dropped, only to reappear in the same position. I dashed toward the rear door with the idea of finding what was this strange apparition. The door was bolted, and when I called to the woman I got no reply. There was nothing for it but to cross the room in the face of that man's head, now glued to the pane of glass, and try the outer door. Before I had put my hand on the door, I knew that it was also bolted. I was a prisoner.

The only window in the room was the one where the strange face was now fixed watching me. For a moment I sat and looked about the room, searching for an escape. The smoky oil lamp gave a dim light. At last in pure courage of horror I took the lamp and held it against the window in such a way that its feeble rays illuminated the head on the other side. It was a ghastly face! Emaciated, bearded, with the skin of cheek and neck hanging in folds about the quivering jaws. The

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lips moved. I fancied that I caught the whisper of a human voice, and I stood on my tiptoes to catch the words. There were words, whispered hoarsely, words unintelligible to me. Suddenly the face disappeared, and from the other apartment I soon heard a miserable howl, the animal cry of a broken human being. In a few moments the cry came again. I hurled myself against the door fruitlessly. When I turned a sudden draft from the outer door blew out the light. . . .

"Scott, are you in here?" came a reassuring English voice. I was too much amazed to answer at once. "Say, man, where are you?" the voice continued.

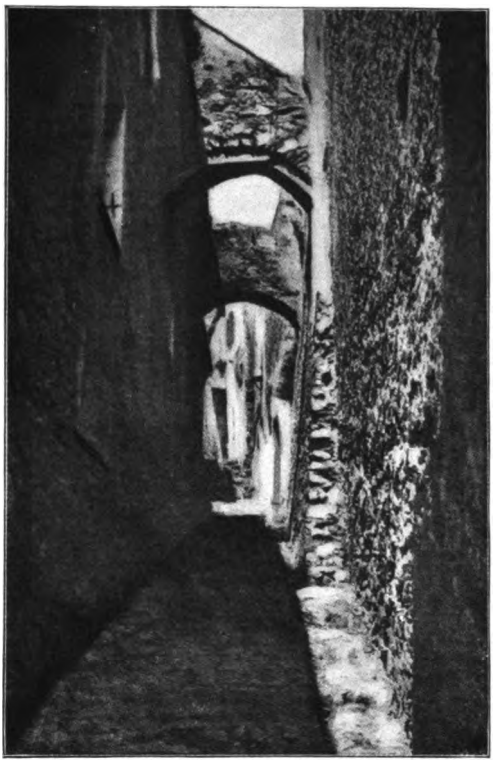
When I had answered, and the lamp had been lighted, I saw my friend of the Taormina villa with two of his servants, a guest, and one of the military officers stationed at Taormina. They were wrapped in heavy rain cloaks, and their hats showed the soaking that they had received on their way up the mountain.

"Luigi said you were in trouble," my friend explained. "That's all I could get out of him. Where is the little beggar now?"

"I don't know where he is," I answered. "But there's something wrong back of that window. And I am going to find out what it is before we leave."

The rest is soon told. When we had forced our way into the rear room, we found a miserable kind of stable where was chained an old man, whose face I had seen at the window. He was a little proprietor, with a place on the other side of Etna, who had disappeared a few weeks before. It had been rumored that he had been carried off by a notorious band of brigands for ransom, but no trace of his whereabouts had been discovered. It seems that Luigi, probably knowing this family secret and possibly fearing a similar fate for me, had quietly slipped away when he had seen me in the hands of his sister's friends. He had made all haste to Taormina and had found my friend at dinner with some people and had persuaded him by his dumb persistency that I was really in trouble. Hence my rescue.

The storm had blown down the coast, leaving Etna covered with a glorious mantle of glittering snow, and we proceeded downward under the starry heavens. "What would they have done



A STREET IN TAORMINA

with me?" I asked when we were once more on the road.

"Oh, not so much," my friend answered coolly. "That is if they didn't think you knew too much about our friend here. They have a wholesome fear of foreigners and don't often levy tribute on them."

Luigi had disappeared once more. He had brought them to the door of the *locanda* and then had slipped away.

"He'll get something bad from that crowd," my friend observed. "They're regular devils to any one who goes back on them."

But about half way down the mountain, as we rounded the elbow of Monte Venere, and swung into view of the broad sea, a little form rose in the path ahead of me.

"Luigi!" I exclaimed.

"*Si, signore,*" he answered softly.

* * * *

Luigi is now at school, far away from the hills of Sicily, at Monte Cassino, where with ninety or more fellow pupils in little black frocks he follows obediently the good-natured priest and acquires what is in his eyes stupendous learning.

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KOREA AND INTERNATIONAL POLITICS

BY

WILLIAM ELLIOT GRIFFIS

AUTHOR OF "KOREA, THE HERMIT NATION"

STONE PAGODA, PING YANG

KOREA in 1590 defiantly twitted Japan as "a bee trying to sting a tortoise in closed armor." This angered the island empire and Japan stung long and hard.

In plain history, the Mikado's armies overran the peninsula, from Quelpart island to the Yalu river. For defense, the Koreans called in the Chinese. The voracity of the friend was equal to that of the foe. The Chinese first succored and then sucked dry. Between invaders and rescuers the prey was picked to the bone and scraped clean.

Three centuries ago it was a question between the Chinese dragon and the Japanese dragon-fly; for the latter was the symbol of the ancient islanders. The Koreans, nearly surrounded by two seas, pictured themselves and their country as "a shrimp between two whales." Now, with a new monster with skin as white as polar fur, it is Korea betwixt the claw and the maw of the Russian bear and the dart and sting of the Japanese dragon-fly. As for the old dragon, China, she is bruised and out of the field. So the pigmy empire, Korea, has not even the power of choice, but lying helpless waits. Impoverished by invading armies again in our own generation, and in chronic devastation because of bad government, her future seems certain only in the sense of absorption. But, by which power?

History and geography are at one in explaining why and how the little land is but as a sprat to catch a mackerel, ever a morsel between contending rivals, old and new. It may be interesting for Americans to know why Russia chews up treaty tags, so that nobody can guess her destination—except to the terminal of her own railway line; and why also Japan will fight rather than lose the peninsula which is now already potentially hers. Her claims are both historical and imperative.

On Korea, Russia has no valid claims, save those dictated by earth-hunger, political ambitions and "interests" no older than half of a human generation. On the contrary, to the Japanese the sentimental links that form a chain of associations a millenium and a half old have created bonds as inviolable as religion. Interwoven in all their national history, these seem to the Japanese as far-reaching and as compelling in moral influence as the associations that bind the loyalty of the Roman Catholic to Peter as the founder of the papacy. The little "Land of Morning Calm" is to the Japanese the path of the missionaries who brought the culture and ethics of China and the religion of India to his shores. His art pictures the scholar with his manuscripts riding on the whale's back to the Land under the Sun's Root—everlasting Great Japan, or the saint wafted on a rice-stalk and leaves to the holy country of Lord Buddha's New Avatars. To every Japanese child reared in traditions as old as the "moss of uncomputed ages," Korea is the Land of Sacred Treasures, of the adventures of

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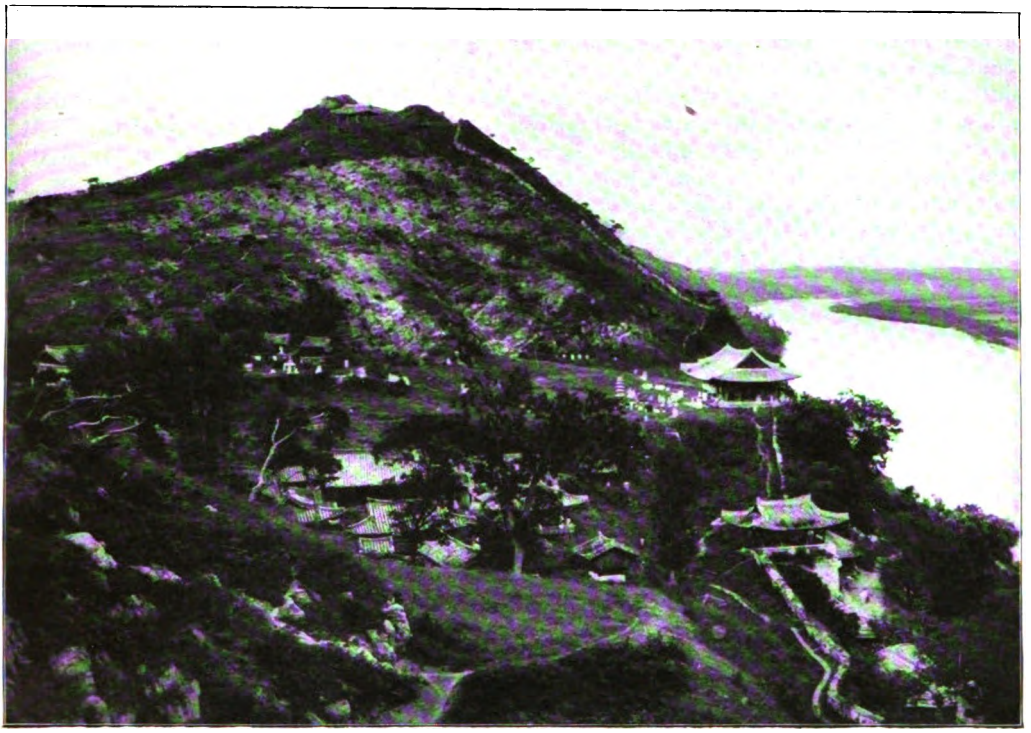

PEARY MOUNTAIN, KOREA
Captured by the Japanese in a bayonet charge in 1894.

brave ancestors, the primeval home of art. In the minds of the Mikado's subjects the associations of things Korean in Japan are with emperor and court, temple and school, legends and history glorified in romance, set in all far-away halo and golden-edged tradition. Give up Korea? Never.

This is the united voice and heart-beat of forty-five millions. No ministry in Tokio can ignore it. Smother it as press censor vainly tries to do, stifle or murder it—despite the protest of the seven imperial university professors—as politician may, it would, like "the dead heart" in Poe's story, throb with invincible potency. Years ago, when the Czar was cut and nigh wounded unto death by the sword of a Japanese policeman—a very Puritan in life—we saw the outburst, almost involuntary, as of a volcano's jet of flame, of the fiery sentiment of the nation.

Sentimental and emotional the Japanese is, but he is above all a soldier. His ancestors conquered Korea. Does not every boy's "feast of flags" on the fifth day of the fifth month, with its elaborate effigies, emblems and pictures, furnish again the ancient tableaux telling of the conquest of Korea? Does not every "history" recount and voluminous literature detail it? No "higher criticism" is allowed by the Tokio government and every professor challenging ancient statements is quickly retired. With every imaginable decoration of fancy, and inwrought in popular art, the drama, and street lore, is the tale of the Amazonian queen Jingu (so near to Jingo!) and her son Ojin. To-day many a pagan soldier of the Mikado wears in his cap or sewn in his clothing a tiny image of Ojin, god of war. Preserved in ante-natal life, by aid of a magic stone in his mother's girdle, through prolonged gestation while she was busy in her campaigns in subduing the Koreans, Ojin's name is the beginning of Japan's military "history" in wars beyond the border. He fulfilled thus anciently Japan's constant ambition, now again aflame in the army, to shine "beyond the seas."

It is part, then, of the creed of every Japanese that Korea is virtually an annex of the Mikado's empire, merely an

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extension of frontier. Balked by the armed might of three leagued nations in 1895 and her Manchurian prey wrenched out of her very teeth, will Japan now allow Russia to claim the half or whole of Korea? Only too well do the Tokio statesmen know that to concede to Russia joint occupation of Korea means ultimately complete ownership by the Bear. Saghalien, once belonging to the Japanese, as they supposed, is now wholly Russian and the Czar's inferno and prison house. On the first clash between China and Japan in 1894, Bruin saw his way clear to a meal. He waited till the war was over and then swallowed Manchuria. History is the story of precedents.

Meanwhile, as between the "two whales," what of the "shrimp?" Who are the Koreans and where is their land? The suggestions of its name, even a generation ago, were to us as vague as those belonging to a sea shell. When Japanese and Chinese were to us one, or at least as indistinguishable as Siamese twins, Korea —"the Corea," we called it then—was but a ligament of like substance.

NEW IMPERIAL ALTAR, SEOUL

Yet Korea has a history quite ancient and an individuality quite picturesque. Indeed, the pride that has too often gone before her many falls—notably before that compelled by the American Dahlgren shells of 1871—has been in her boasted "civilization of four thousand years." She claims an ancestor of Confucius, Ki-shi, as the founder of her social order, beginning 1122 B. C. Locally, the Japanese bombs and rifle-balls of 1894, at Ping Yang, played as much mischief with the memorial tomb and sculpture as occidental critical science has with the traditions of him. Nevertheless, one knows not the Korean, whether plebeian or wrapped in the pride of his Chinese erudition, who makes no allowance for the power of lore and culture which stretch, in the history of China, across an eternity of time. It is this which makes the hermit dressed in white cotton and horsehair look on the American, reverend or irreverent, as a good blacksmith or peddler, but little else or more. In the matter of ethics or culture or philosophy the foreigner is outside the pale of civilization.

Kishi's line of rulers came to an end in 9 A. D. About this time we see the descent from the north of Tartar tribes living under feudal forms, who furnish also vast numbers of emigrants to Japan, even those progenitors of the Mikados, whose ancestors "came down from heaven." In the southern and warmer parts of the Korean peninsula were many indigenous tribes whose race struggles or unwritten history issued in the three states or kingdoms of Shinra, Hiaksai and Petsi. (We must choose one out of a dozen different ways of spelling a Korean word, even that best known and mapped and Japanese in form.) Into these, early in the fourth century, came, after Chinese letters had already entered, the missionaries of Buddhism. These came by way of Thibet and China, bringing the larger vehicle or the expanded northern form of Shaka's primitive simple faith. In the evolution of a history that reminds us of Celt, Saxon and Gael in Britain, Shinra (Silla) rose to be the predominant state. By the ninth century, rivalry is over and united Korea, or Korai, results.

Now begins the splendid Buddhist age which covered the peninsula with monasteries, temples and images, gave the

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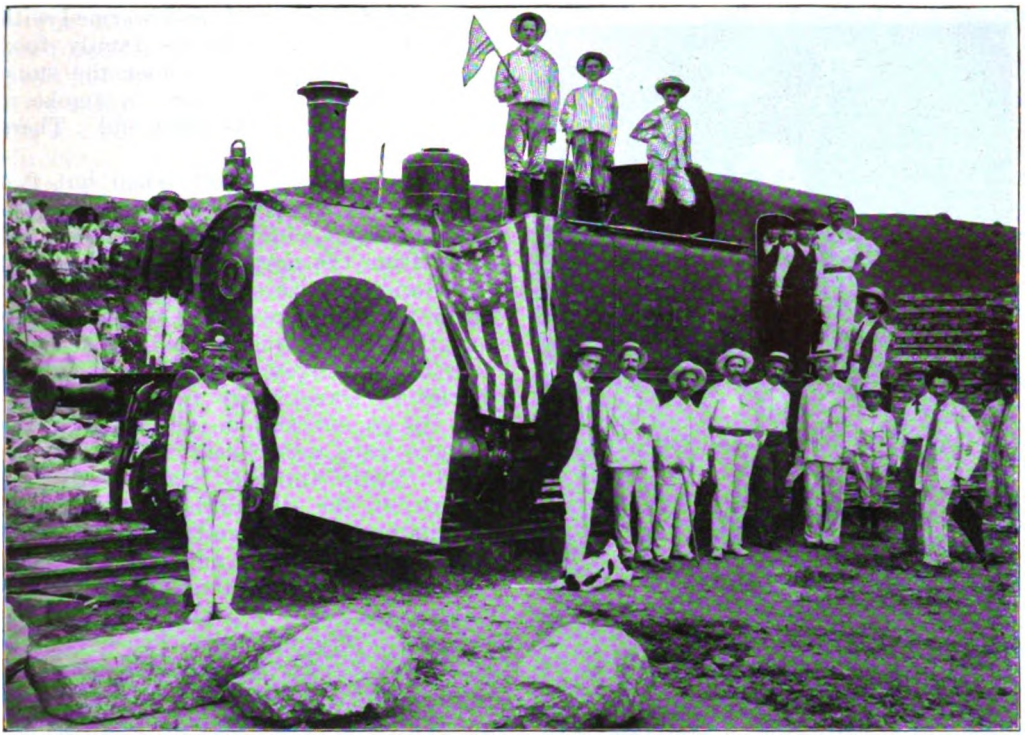

THE FIRST LOCOMOTIVE TO BE SET UP IN KOREA

people an alphabet of twenty-five letters and carried civilization, art and literature into every valley. To this era belong those colossal carved monoliths, *mir-yeks* or images of the Buddha, as well as of the twin figures, male and female (square-capped and round-capped) which represent the two principles of heaven and earth. To-day, lichen-covered and often lonely in deserted forests, they tell of forgotten centuries as eloquently in art as the changes in place-names—city becoming forest and vice versa—in the language. This age, with its activities, its fervors and its hopes, explains also why in Seoul's most squalid quarter rises the many-storied white marble pagoda whose sculptured panels and ornamental recurved cornices are the delight of the art lover and antiquary. Despite the fact that the Japanese in 1592 took off the three top stories, this marble wonder points to the medieval times when, instead of a capital city of three hundred thousand souls, there were here but village and monastery. Reared by her loving husband to cheer a devout but homesick princess from China, the marble remains when the old heart-pain and the predominance of the India faith are alike a memory.

Other glories of the past to the devout and scholarly Korean Buddhists—not so rare to-day as a generation ago—were commerce with and embassies to and from China, guided by the magnetic compass, the peaceful coming of Arabs and Japanese, and traders from Annam and India, and of a constant stream of Buddhist missionary and civilizing influences to and fro. China's literary splendor during the dynasties of Sung and Tang meant brilliant reflection in Korea. Even a glance at the language apart from a study of the four quartos of the "Bibliographie Coreene" of Emile Courant, shows this. One might as well attempt to pluck out the fruits of Chinese influences from Korean civilization as to extract all the results of the Greek culture and Latin discipline from us, or our Christianity.

So despite aggressive and triumphant Buddhism, which finally becomes fat to grossness, proud even to persecution, and drunk with political favor and power, the

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A KOREAN LADY IN WAITING

tide of Confucianism rises. Parties form, force is invoked, war breaks out and Confucianism becomes intrenched at court and rides into full power in the chariot of the new dynasty. The old capital of Sunto falls to ruin and the sites of temples and monasteries become ginseng gardens. In 1395 A. D. the new capital is built on the Han river, Han Yang, or Seoul, pronounced as if a man of Cork were telling us of the immortal part of his nature. The stone wall, forty-two feet high and six miles long, pierced by eight massive gates, was built in nine months by an army of laborers numbering two hundred thousand. The principal streets are fifty-six feet wide. Since the American missionary has come and the native government officer, long resident in Washington, has returned, the city, from being one of the filthiest in the East, is now a model (an oriental one) of cleanliness. It is a collection for the most part of thatched houses, each made up of lines of dwelling-rooms built around a hollow square or oblong space, with gate opening into the street, and warmed with a fire which first cooks the family food and then, through flues under the stone or brick floors, sends heat (or smoke if cracks there be) to the other end. There are no cellars in Korea.

The new city in 1592, when but two centuries old, survived the storm of Japanese invasion, but the Manchus swooped down from the north and over the Yalu river and the Koreans were put under heavy tribute. Until the Chino-Japanese war, the Korean king was obliged at every visit of the envoy from Peking (whose diaries of travel make interesting reading) to go out and do obeisance at the Chinese gate near Seoul. Now, in the freed "little Outpost State" only the stumps of the dismantled structure of humiliation remain, and "Independence Arch," designed by an American and erected by patriotic natives, who are excellent masons, rears its proud form near the everlasting granite hills whence its material was hewn. Content with gold and woven stuffs as tribute, the Manchus spared their Korean vassals the infliction of the queue or pigtail, the sign of the Chinaman's subjection, which, despite original bloody resistance, he proudly wears, as a badge of loyalty to Peking. In visiting Korea the Chinaman of to-day sees in the fashions of clothes and style of wearing the hair the customs of his ancestors, for the Korean dress is that of the Ming period.

Thoroughly Confucianized and in abject mental slavery to China, Korea in 1873 insulted by letter her old rival Japan, reproaching her as a traitor to the Orient, because, making "education the basis of all progress" and seeking occidental teachers, the young nation "swept into the younger day." In the Sunrise Land, economics and modern ideas sheathed the sword, already half out, when the world-girdling embassy returned from Europe. General Kuroda, imitating Perry's peaceful tactics, offered the olive branch, and a treaty waiving Japan's ancient claims and recognizing peninsular independence was made. The noble policy of the Tokio statesmen cost Japan a reactionary civil war of eight months, the sacrifice of forty thousand lives, $50,000,000 and the death by assassination of two statesmen.

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The Koreans at once, in 1876, began the formation of parties—pro-Japanese or pro-Chinese—and also what the conservatives called "civilization nonsense," making a tortoise-like movement in a western direction.

In all modern Asiatic nations, as it would seem, Christianity is the one leavening, disturbing and recreating force. By assimilation or through activity created by opposition to it, the Asian races must reform. In Korea, the Tong Haks, literally champions of oriental (Confucian and Buddhist) culture, but in reality led by those who in Christianity, or a new fusion of faiths, found hope of release from crushing oppression and misgovernment, rose into insurrection, forcing China's reactionary hand and bringing on the war with Japan, which swung Korea out of the Chinese orbit. The independent Korean "empire" was proclaimed by the king in his ancestral temple in Seoul.

Nevertheless, with no navy or army beyond a necessary police force, with a chronically empty treasury, with selfish and impotent nobles wrapped in a cocoon of feudal traditions and steeped in corruption, Korea was left helpless between Japan and Russia. The former virtually holds and garrisons the country, while protecting her merchant citizens in whose hands are four-fifths of the foreign trade of the country, besides the railway, steamer and telegraph service, and a small army of laborers now building the railroad between Seoul and Fusan, the port nearest Japan. The Muscovite occupies large portions of land along the Yalu river and cuts timber for his Manchurian possessions, rafting the logs down to the mouth of the river, but otherwise, apart from a little whale hunting, has practically no interests in Korea beyond those of the dog in the manger. As we write, the diplomatic envoys of Czar and Mikado face each other across the table and fleets and armies wait expectant in the leash, on either side of the seas into which juts the peninsula.

UNITED STATES LEGATION RESIDENCE, SEOUL

It would be interesting to describe the Korean kingdom in detail, according to its new thirteen political, or its old eight

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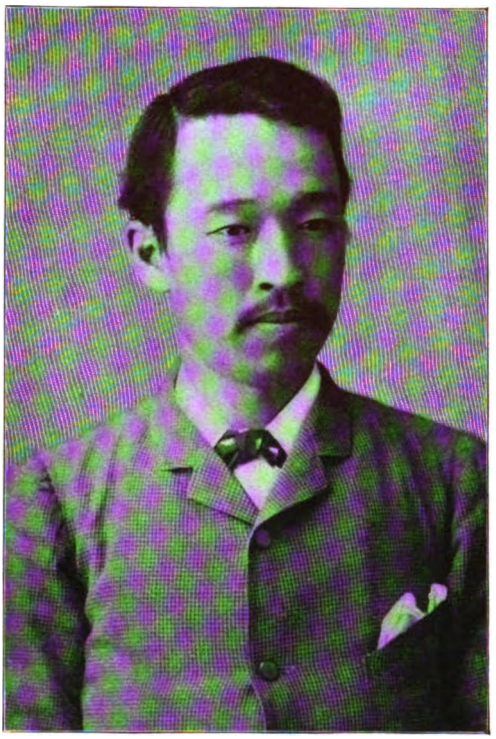

PRINCE BOKU
A Radical Reformer

geographical *do*, circuits, or provinces, which are really river basins or drainage areas partitioned off or enclosed by mountains. Northern Korea is cold and mountainous. "The people hunt tigers six months in the year, the tigers hunt the people the other six months." Yet here are the gold mines that have already attracted British and American capital and industry. Southern Korea is warm and fertile, "the granary of the kingdom." It would be interesting, too, to describe the Korean man, taller than the Japanese, finer looking than the Chinese; attractive physically, yet lacking woefully in moral stamina.

Whether the Koreans are a degenerate race, as their civilization almost certainly is, whether their weakness as a nation only seems or really is hopeless and decadent, or, whether national impotence is simply the result of bad government, is a question on which experts may differ. So long as the lazy Yang-ban (civil and military) class exists to drain the life-blood of the nation, we see little hope for permanent improvement of the people in the "empire." In Seoul, the capital, are three thousand of the official class, in all the rest of the country eight hundred. This tells the story. There is no initiative in idea or action outside of Seoul, and the only notion of politics to the Korean Yang-ban is intrigue and self-aggrandizement. With their hangers-on they form

MISSIONARY HEADQUARTERS, SEOUL

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Korea's incubus and nightmare. In Japan this class of gentry were cut off from pensions, and the law, court, school, military and civil service and all offices thrown open to all and to every class.

With unmitigated despotism, bureaucracy, monopoly, extortion above, and little or no motive for industry and slight protection from official or feudal rapacity beneath, it is hard to see what a Korean has to live for. All the signs of decay are in the air. "Concessions" are rather freely given, and government enterprises quickly die of parasitism.

Yet a new Korea is coming. Not alone is it seen in the reforms which no longer shut the males in at curfew in order to let out the women for a free walk in the streets of Seoul. Nor is the change only from a compulsory uniform of white cotton night-gown clothes to modern dress and from chignons in horse-hair cages to clipped polls. It is not merely that the language of hats has altered, the pig-pen city become clean, and that smokestacks, telegraph poles and trolley cars are seen in Seoul.

Yet the new Korea that rises without observation is that which has been called into being by the American missionaries, who give new motives and outlook, the teachers who reveal a new world, the physicians, who for Christ's sake, maintain dispensaries and hospitals, traveling, it may be, long journeys in sub-zero weather to succor the needy. With gospel by mouth and in print, with preacher and pastor and Bible readers, and with training in self-support, the Koreans of the twentieth century—already thousands of them—work for the uplift of their fellows and the regeneration of their country. They are infusing that moral stamina in the body politic, the lack of which is the secret of Korea's moribund and pitiable condition.

THE GERMAN VIEW OF AMERICA

BY

ALBION W. SMALL

PROFESSOR OF SOCIOLOGY, THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

A BLUSTEROUS Kaiser, a bullying army, and a mass of sleepy people with interests bounded by big beer mugs and long-stemmed pipes, are the salient features in the typical American view of Germany. To understand what the Germans think of us we must first correct our ideas of them.

Since I was in the crowds that cheered the Crown Prince twenty-two years ago, when he rode through the Brandenburger Tor—old-fashioned "Thor" it was at that time—to meet his bride, and when he returned with the procession of honor, I have seen him as crown prince and as kaiser on various occasions. Having never had closer contact with him, however, than as a spectator in the crowd, I must needs follow the scriptural method of judging him by his works. They are visible on every hand. The strengths and the weaknesses of a race were probably never more fairly set forth in a single person than the traits of the Germans are in Wilhelm II. I find myself constantly explaining them by watching him, and quite as often explaining him by watching them. The Kaiser is by nature what Yankees call a "masterful" man. He was bred to the notion that his mission in the world is to fill the place of a father to the German people, and he takes his task seriously. On the other hand, no judicial observer can doubt that as a whole the Germans at this moment are the most virile, the most enlightened, and the most progressive people in all Europe. Brave toil of hand and brain for more than two centuries has made to-day's Germany. It remains true, however, that without the impulse and the guidance of such a personality as the present Kaiser even the splendid qualities of the Germans could not have brought the work to its present stage.

The last decade has seen nowhere else such team work as in the German empire, in all that makes for national greatness. The wonder of it grows when we notice that the Germans are the most factious of the great nations, and the most stubborn in contending among themselves about

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details. The pitiful bickerings going on just now among the Social Democrats, to the delight of their enemies, are simply samples of a big assortment. This foolishness will be outgrown, but it marks the juvenescent stage of democracy. On the face of things unity should be a much easier matter in the German Empire than in Austria. With a different type of man on the throne, however, Germany might have drifted into a worse plight than now worries the Hapsburg state. Wilhelm II has managed to play a much more important role than the imperial constitution strictly permits. All things considered, it has been a godsend to the Germans that a real ruler, and not a mere figurehead, has worn the crown.

Then the army! There is no need to tell Americans about the evils of militarism. Our minds were made up long ago and are not likely to change. We have been confirmed rather than shaken in our opinion by all we have heard of the German army. Through American spectacles it looks little better than the Turks did in 1453 to the Christians in Constantinople. We may well be glad that we have no use for such a machine, but we have not heard, or at least not heeded, the whole story. That army is by no means an unmixed evil. It is far and away the most efficient primary school in the world. Every year it takes a quarter of a million half-baked boys and makes them men. When this trained army passes out of active service it is scattered through the empire in private or public employment, and does work that would be out of the question without the military discipline. I said to a German officer this summer: "Americans think an army is intolerable unless it is the defender and servant of the people; but we have the impression that the German army claims the right to domineer over the people." "I know what you mean," he answered, "and exceptions to the rule furnish plenty of excuse for such conclusions. The ideal of our army, however, is just what you demand, and most of our officers are serious men who take exactly that view of their profession."

The sensation of the past year in German army circles has been the appearance of a novel of over seven hundred pages, entitled "Jena or Sedan." The title suggests the thread of argument in a loosely constructed story. It purports to picture present tendencies in the German military system. The question is, Shall the army drift back to a state that will lead to another Jena, or shall it keep up standards that insure future Sedans? The author's implied answer is that nothing short of a radical reconstruction of the system will prevent the former outcome. A German officer whose opinion I asked about the book probably spoke for army men in general when he answered: "It is no doubt a good thing for us officers to read such a book, but it is little short of treason to circulate it among the people." In its way the novel is as much of a firebrand as "Uncle Tom's Cabin" was. Imagining ourselves jurors, sitting in judgment on the evidence it contains, our verdict would be: "Not proven," or, perhaps, "Guilty, with extenuating circumstances." Every human institution falls into ruts. This means that the men who work it tend to get careless and indifferent about mere routine, and that they are not equally loyal to duty. I find in the two volumes no indictments of the army which might not be brought in essentials against every great university, or corporation, or religious denomination. If we believe that all sorts of organizations need a good shaking up about once in ten years, the German army would doubtless furnish a fair illustration. There is not a ghost of evidence, however, that it needs purging one-quarter as much as every other army in Europe. Whether we regard a standing army as a necessary or an unnecessary evil, the German specimen is still probably the best in Europe. It would be hard to prove that any organization of equal size in the world represents more conscience and intelligence devoted to making its real character conform to its ideals. The navy has never been tested, but so far as I can learn, the most competent judges believe it might safely be included in this judgment of the army. Speaking of them as one, Kaiser and army together are symbols of the real Germany, and at the same time means by which that real Germany expresses itself.

But there, as here, the people are the nation, and American ideas of the Germans bear hardly more resemblance to

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the reality than the traditional figure of Uncle Sam does to the ordinary American gentleman. The German is first of all a sentimentalist. He is not a star-gazer and a Utopian. His feet are on the ground, and he has a level head, but he throws a halo about the commonplace. He makes nature talk in parables. He idealizes persons, both in his loves and his hates. We might call him feminine in both his attachments and his aversions. He clings to the associations of times and places. He observes religiously all sorts of anniversaries, and he punctiliously celebrates no end of days of remembrance. He has his philosophy of life, and he is capable of unlimited self-sacrifice for the sake of getting his conception of the world as it ought to be put into application. He is hospitable, companionable and effusively cordial toward his friends. He opens his heart to them and trusts them so long as he believes they are likewise disposed toward him. But he is quick to be suspicious, and if he thinks he is betrayed or unfairly treated his wrath is more demonstrative than his friendship. He is not vindictive, but his righteous indignation remains till the offense is removed and amends are made.

The German is in the second place a stickler for order and method. It is not enough for him that a thing should be done, it must be done according to rule. The laws of the land superintend him in discharging his servant girl and in engaging another. They tell him when he may play his piano, in what shape he must fold his postal packages, how much risk he may take in boarding a railroad train, how he must word advertisements of his goods, what titles he may affix to his name, and what devices his wife may have upon her note-paper or the door of her carriage. He breathes an atmosphere of rules, and he comes to regard them as ends rather than means. Every one who knows him can tell stories of his naive way of violating the spirit of rules while enforcing the letter. If an American is fortunate enough to get into German family and social life, he soon meets this trait in the details of conventional politeness. Precedent seems to take rank with the moral law. The essence of things is obscured by traditional forms. The warm welcome and considerate treatment that respectable Americans always receive in Germany is all the more remarkable in spite of the fact that the almost universal popular estimate of us expresses itself in the phrase: "Those boorish Americans." We are notorious for trampling rough-shod over precepts of etiquette which they hold sacred.

In more important affairs this trait works out in the most firmly woven fabric of political and industrial order that has ever been operated on a large scale. In criss-crossing Germany from Cologne to Königsberg, and from Hamburg to Munich one gets the feeling that farm and town and city are merely subdivisions of the same plant. Governmental control of railroads, postal and express service, telegraph and telephone lines, schools and churches, as well as of the army, very likely produces this first impression. The unity of spirit and likeness of method in administering cities, as shown in detail in the exposition held by 128 of them at Dresden this summer, heighten the effect, and the whole attitude of the people, Social Democrats in spite of themselves included, confirms it. Without exaggeration it may be said that Germany, with a population two-thirds as great as ours, is the most systematically organized, coöperative, civilizing undertaking of its size that has ever been set in motion.

Once more, the German is a dogmatist. The Englishman can stick to his position as obstinately, but only when it is a real, not merely a theoretical one. He is more frankly egotistical about it, too, and asserts himself out of sheer self-will. If any principle can be asserted to justify his aggression, he is glad of the backing. If not, he asserts himself all the same. The German, on the contrary, masks his naked will behind a demonstration of opinion. His doctrine is right. Whoever questions it is a suspicious character. All the corollaries from it are certain, and the practical inferences must be enforced at all hazards.

Now on general principles America and Americans are obnoxious to each of these elements in German character. Everything unlovely about us has been caricatured for German misinformation, and our reputation has suffered accordingly. We are supposed to have no sentiment except for dollars, no ideals except to get

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the largest heap of them, no culture except short-cut routes to knowledge convertible into money, and no scruples that keep us from grabbing whatever we can reach. The only theory on which I can account for the magnificent treatment that individual Americans receive in Germany is that they are regarded as exceptions to the rule, and with all their strange ways still of course much superior to the great majority who stay at home. It is hard for the German to believe that any good thing can come from such a majority, such a materialistic, unsympathetic, selfish mass.

While this illusion affects the many, and the few know better, the second contrast between Germans and Americans has its most immediate effects among the political theorists. To them the United States is not properly a nation at all. It is an aggregation of people without a sovereign, therefore without sovereignty, consequently not strictly and fully a state, but a political nondescript, a monstrosity, an illegitimate claimant to the rights and privileges of statehood.

Our loose political system, with its play of hide-and-seek for responsibility between the states and the Federal government, seems to the Germans a cunning device to encourage lawlessness. Our free and easy disregard of law, our jaunty fashion of improvising officials, and in general our unblushing democracy, makes them feel that it is no virtue, but sheer political necessity which constrains them to belie their principles, and treat this misguided collection of adventurers as though they were a properly constituted state.

Until a few years ago, however, America was of hardly more practical interest to Germany than Alaska before the gold discoveries was to Canada. To Bismarck the Monroe Doctrine was an impertinence, but after all he regarded it as a mere academic proposition at best, with which it was not worth while to parley. It was very much as though America had claimed the exclusive right to discover the north pole. Nobody would have conceded the claim, but no one might have thought best to contest it.

But ever since the Franco-Prussian War Germany has been developing her industries and her commerce. She has an enormous surplus of capacity to produce all sorts of manufactured goods, but she can not consume them at home, and can not employ all her available labor, because there is no sufficient market abroad. Just at this point the American monster becomes a real menace. He shuts out German manufactures from his own territory by prohibitive tariffs. He stands as a dog-in-the-manger on the shores of South America. He will not undertake to give the unorganized or half organized countries stable and just governments, under which investments would be secure, and he claims the right to prevent any other country from performing that needed work. At the same time he actually invades our territories and demoralizes our markets with the surplus of his protected goods, while he refuses to lower the dam that prevents natural flow of products to America in return.

This estimate of the situation has passed into a dogma. "America is bent on the economic annihilation of Europe." Pointing out the errors in German judgments of us is not our present affair. I have simply tried to put the case as Germans express it. We pose as prophets of liberty. They think we practice the arts of unscrupulous and insufferable monopoly.

Provided with his dogma, the German has a vocation. Cato was not more convinced that Carthage must be destroyed than many Germans are that American growth must be checked. In the nature of the case it is impossible to measure the strength of this sentiment, or to forecast the details of policy which it will prompt. Americans are slow to realize that we have emerged from our long isolation, and that we now have the kind of interests which men quarrel about, at vulnerable points in different parts of the world. German expansion, however, now touches the limits of American pretension. The logic of events must shortly test our claims.

The Germans can afford to learn many things from us, but more things to our advantage may just now be learned by observing them than any other people in the world. What we have to fear from the Germans is that they will excel us in the things for which we must admire them most.

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IMPRESSIONS OF THE FAR EAST

I. CEYLON

BY

CHARLES CUTHBERT HALL

PRESIDENT OF UNION THEOLOGICAL SEMINARY
BARROWS LECTURER OF THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO, 1902-3

THE Parliament of Religions, held in Chicago in connection with the World's Fair, was the occasion of an unprecedented gathering of cultured Orientals in an American capital. To multitudes who attended the parliament the appearance, the breeding and the culture of many of these Orientals presented a complete surprise. Sharing the conventional view of the remoteness and degradation of the East, it was little less than startling to very many Americans to behold, emerging from the East, numbers of men, who, by their university tone of thought, would adorn any intellectual circle, and many thoughtful Christians were aroused to the possibilities of bringing about a fraternal and unprejudiced interchange of religious opinions between seekers after God in the East and West.

CHARLES CUTHBERT HALL

Among those thus moved was the woman whose name now has become known throughout the world, Mrs. Caroline E. Haskell. The possessor of abundant means, a Christian of noble spirit and of broadminded sympathy, Mrs. Haskell resolved to do what lay within her reach to bring about a better understanding of one another on the part of those who, under widely differing conditions of custom and tradition, were alike considering the essential problems of religion and alike giving expression to the universal longing after a better knowledge of God.

In the University of Chicago there stand to-day three results of the earnest purpose of Mrs. Haskell: the Haskell Museum of Oriental Research, the Lectureship on Comparative Religion, and the Barrows Lectureship for India and the Far East. The purpose of the donor in respect of the first and second of these gifts was to promote among cultivated Americans a more correct and comprehensive knowledge of eastern thought. The end contemplated in the foundation of the Barrows Lectureship is best indicated in the letter wherein Mrs. Haskell intimated to the president of the university the thought of which her gift was to be the practical expression. It may not be out of place to transcribe here a portion of her letter:

CHICAGO, October 12, 1894.

To President William R. Harper, Ph.D., D.D.:

MY DEAR SIR,—I take pleasure in offering to the University of Chicago the sum of $20,000 for the founding of a second lectureship on the rela-

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tions of Christianity and the other religions. These lectures, six or more in number, are to be given in Calcutta (India), and if deemed best, in Bombay, Madras, or some other point of the chief cities of Hindustan, where large numbers of educated Hindus are familiar with the English language. The wish, so earnestly expressed, by Mr. P. C. Mozoomdar, that a lectureship, like that which I had the privilege of founding last summer, might be provided for India, has led me to consider the desirability of establishing in some great collegiate center, like Calcutta, a course of lectures to be given, either annually, or as may seem better, biennially, by leading Christian scholars of Europe, Asia and America, in which, in a friendly, temperate, conciliatory way, and in the fraternal spirit which pervaded the Parliament of Religions, the great questions of the truths of Christianity, its harmonies with the truths of other religions, its rightful claims, and the best method of setting them forth, should be presented to the scholarly and thoughtful people of India. . . .

Yours sincerely,

CAROLINE E. HASKELL.

Pursuant to the wish of Mrs. Haskell, as set forth in her letter, the first incumbent of the lectureship was he in whose honor it was named, Mrs. Haskell's pastor and afterward the honored president of Oberlin College, Rev. John Henry Barrows, D.D. Multitudes in this country will remember the enthusiasm with which the lamented Dr. Barrows returned from his eastern mission and the joy with which he bore witness to the religious earnestness of Oriental truth-seekers.

BUDDHIST TEMPLE OF THE SACRED TOOTH

The second incumbent of the lectureship was Rev. Principal A. M. Fairbairn, D.D., of Mansfield College, Oxford, whose name is a symbol of fearless nonconformity and rugged championship of evangelical belief.

Dr. Barrows was appointed at a time when many Christians, at home and on mission fields, feared lest the effect of the Parliament of Religions should be to obscure from the eyes of the world the supremacy and absoluteness of the Christian religion and to reduce its standing to the proportions of one of the ethnic faiths. Dr. Barrows, as the presiding officer of the Parliament of Religions, naturally was associated, in the minds of those who thus doubted, with the unfavorable result of which they were apprehensive; and it is but fair to say that many missionaries questioned whether the Barrows Lectureship did not involve more of peril than of promise to the organized institutions of Christianity in non-Christian lands.

Dr. Barrows, as all who knew his earnest and gallant personality are aware, when appointed to a lectureship which instantly attracted world-wide attention, determined to disperse all apprehensions from Christian minds and to shatter any fond illusions indulged by Orientals that the Parliament of Religions meant a surrender of the supremacy of Christianity. While many eastern writers were affirming that modern Christianity had at length become willing to take its place as one of several coequal systems of belief, the message that he gave was distinctly the message for the hour. He set the tone for all his successors and effectually disposed of the criticism that a Barrows lecturer must needs be a hindrance rather than a help to an evangelical missionary.

When Principal Fairbairn emerged from his charming retreat at Mansfield College and sturdily advanced upon the East, no man ever was more true than he to his intellectual training and his religious instincts. A philosophical student of the first rank; an expert in the study of comparative religion; a Scotchman, intolerant of whatsoever seemed to him unworthy of the spiritual nature of man and of the glorious Person of God, Dr. Fairbairn openly and avowedly went forth to the East as a defender of the faith upon philosophical grounds.

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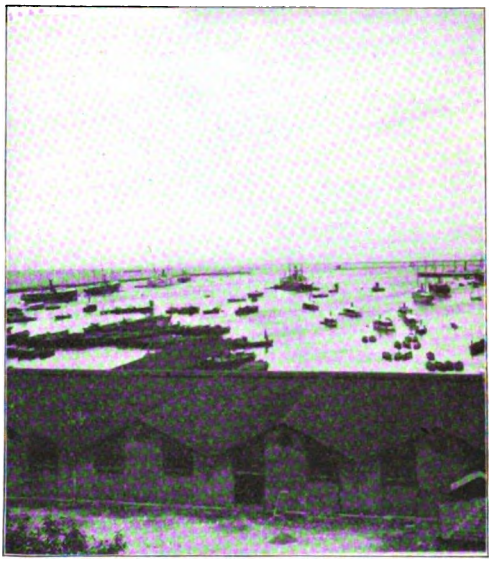
It must be stated that Dr. Fairbairn, in his magnificent zeal for truth, strained to some extent the interpretation of those words, "friendly and conciliatory," in which the founder of the lectureship declared it to be her intention that the "great question of the truths of Christianity should be presented to the scholarly and thoughtful people of India." Nevertheless, though the warmth of his expressions awakened in some a measure of resentment, on every hand the university classes in India admired the brilliancy of his presentations and acknowledged his fidelity to conviction.

When the third choice of a Barrows lecturer was made, it fell upon one who for more than twenty years continuously had been at work in the Christian pastorate, exchanging that sublime office for one more sublime, the training of young men for the work of the ministry. In the course of these many years it was inevitable that some conclusion, based upon a measurably broad observation, should be reached touching the verifications of Christian belief which occur in the experience of individuals. Therefore, it was but natural that the third lecturer should conceive of his mission, not as an imperialistic assertion of the supremacy of Christianity and not as a philosophical comparison of Christianity with Hinduism, but as a bearing of witness on the relation of belief to personal experience.

After receiving the appointment, three years in advance of the term of service, the first duty of the lecturer was to pursue historical studies whereby to reach an intelligent view of the present political, religious and social condition of India. Upon this basis the next step was to acquire a reasonably clear view of the fundamental philosophical positions of Hinduism and Buddhism. The effect of these studies was to establish the conviction that, amid the regrettable developments of belief and practice in the ethnic faiths, are unquestionable evidences of the presence and work of the Spirit of God, and that a true interpretation of the phenomena of the ethnic religions is impossible except upon the theory that these mighty systems are in essence the yearnings of the soul of humanity, forever breathed upon by that "Wind which bloweth where it listeth."



COLOMBO HARBOR

OVER the brilliant landscape around Colombo, masses of purple cloud were rising as the steamer rounded the lighthouse on the jetty and swung into the harbor. As the ship's boat made out to one of the great swinging anchorage buoys, to which the hawsers of calling vessels attach themselves, native traders in their strange little catamarans approached with fruits or baskets to sell, and Sinhalese boys, paddling in rough boats that consist merely of three timbers roped together, dived into the water with loud cries to the passengers, inviting them to throw coins which these dexterous swimmers would recover far beneath the surface.

Launches from war ships, six-oared barges from government offices and from the hotels cluster about the ship, while the purple clouds break above and discharge a volume of rain such as is not seen in the most violent storm of the West. Descending the ship's side one takes refuge beneath the canopy of the barge while dripping coolies climb down with luggage into other boats. Then the quick oars of the men trained from infancy to live upon the waters, bring one to the admirable landing stage where crowd natives in gay garments, while many European faces are seen among them, waiting to welcome friends from home or relieve the dullness of an empty hour.

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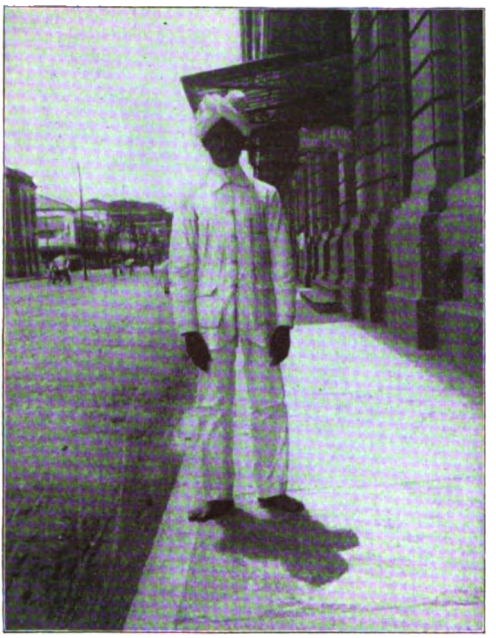

NATIVE SERVANT

The soil of Colombo is red; grass, shrubs and flowers glow with color; palm trees wave; and, before the traveler, as he emerges from the building on the landing stage, rises a monument to Queen Victoria. This is seen at many points throughout the British possessions in the East; and while sometimes the work of the sculptor is unsatisfactory, one can not but admire the dignity of the idea which places before the eyes of Europeans and natives alike a perpetual memorial of the great queen in whose reign the imperialism of Britain was established in the East.

The Grand Oriental Hotel, more familiarly called the "G. O. H.," is a comfortable and spacious resting place for the traveler, weary with his voyage across the Indian ocean. The procession of steamers from Europe, Australia and the Farther East, calling at Colombo, accounts for the animation of the scene presented on the verandas of the hotel. The still larger Galle Face Hotel one reaches by the most charming of drives. On one hand broad lawns roll in front of the military headquarters, the government offices, the public gardens presented to the city by Lord Stanmore, and Queen's House, the comfortable residence of the Right Honorable Sir Joseph West Ridgeway, the Governor of Ceylon. On the other side of the drive is the beautiful sand coast of the Indian ocean, upon which the breakers discharge themselves within ten yards of one's carriage.

Passing the Galle Face Hotel, one enters that most picturesque of scenes, a genuine Sinhalese bazar. The word here is used in its broader sense, of a collection of small shops, although in South India and Ceylon every shop or stall for the sale of goods is a "bazar." At every yard one longs to stop and investigate the contents of the shops or to gaze upon the countenances of the people. The faces of the women are smiling and contented, in contrast with the prevailing sadness that rests upon the faces of Indian women. The countenances of the men are handsome and dignified; and this impression of dignity is not diminished by their manner of arranging the hair, which is permitted to grow long enough to be drawn smoothly back from the brow and fastened behind in a knot at the neck; while upon the top of the head every Sinhalese man wears a semi-circular comb of tortoise-shell which, surmounting the handsome countenance, gives sometimes almost the suggestion of a coronet.

Proceeding from the bazar in the direction of the cinnamon gardens one comes upon shaded roads lined with the bungalows of wealthy Europeans. It is curious to note that the word "bungalow," used to describe the (ordinarily) one-story house with pyramidal roof of thatch or tiles, used by Europeans all over India and Ceylon, is derived etymologically from Bangta, a derivative of Bengal, and signifies "Bengal-fashion houses," the style first having been adopted by Europeans in Behar and Upper India. The estates, for example, in the Turret Road at Colombo, exhibit often a maturity of cultivation and an aspect of age which suggest the long residence of the British in Ceylon. Those who have the privilege to be welcomed socially in these homes of culture feel as if in a dream, on finding, amid the palm groves of the tropical East, the Christian gentleness and the intellectual charm of the best life of England.

Proceeding in another direction from Galle Face one sees the ponds or lakes, which, included within the spacious boundaries of Colombo, offer bathing facilities to the inhabitants, of which they

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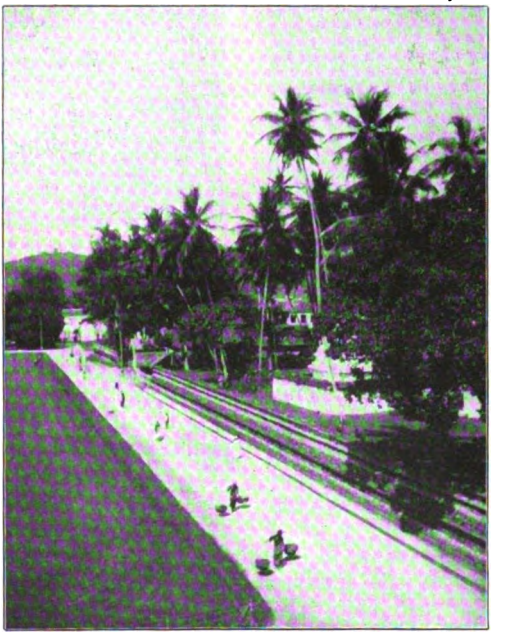
avail themselves with delight. Nothing more refreshing can be imagined than a glimpse, on a fine morning, of the sparkling waters of these lakes, with the foliage upon their banks, and the people, decently and gracefully clad in white garments, walking out by hundreds into the lakes with their chatties. The chatty, a round earthen pot, often having handles, is the usual implement of the Sinhalese as they go to their baths. Having been plunged into the lake, it is lifted above the head and its contents are discharged over the body. Frequently the use of the chatty is connected with ceremonial washings; religious purification being determined by the number of times that the chatty is filled and discharged over the person.

As one proceeds from Colombo into the interior of Ceylon, the fascination of the natural scenery is something only to be measured by actual observation; no language can do justice to it. As the line winds toward Kandy, the open spaces occurring between the tropical groves are used chiefly for the cultivation of rice or paddy. The appearance of the paddy fields is a great novelty to western eyes. The plains are divided into multitudinous sections separated by low walls of earth from one to two feet high. Into these sections water is introduced through irrigation trenches from the abundant streams, the plain thus being submerged and reduced to a sea of mud. In this mud, while the waters are abating, the natives are seen setting the paddy plants, which, from time to time, are refreshed by irrigation until the whole plain waves with its harvest. As the mountains are approached, their sides, especially the corries and glens, are transformed into the appearance of staircases by the building up of the ground into small terraces rising one above the other, each terrace having its own low mud wall. From some stream running at a high altitude the irrigation trench is laid far up the mountain and the stream is let down upon the highest step of this strange staircase. The mud wall holds the water until the paddy field on that step is submerged and the ground saturated. Then the water is let off from that step to the next step below, where the process of saturation is repeated, and so on all the way down the mountain side. More than seven hundred and fifty thousand acres of land are devoted to these paddy fields, the product of which, together with the fruits of the palm tree, maintains the native inhabitants.



KANDY, CEYLON

Ceylon produces the finest cinnamon in the world. The cinnamon tree is found distributed through the forests above the three thousand feet line. Plantations are made of cuttings taken from these forest trees and the young, vigorous shoots springing from these cuttings bear the bark which is stripped off and dried, first in the shade and then in the sun, before being bound in bundles for the market.

Far beyond the importance of cinnamon as an industrial product of Ceylon, is the palm tree in its various forms: the cocoanut, the areca and the palmyra. More than eight hundred and sixty thousand acres of land are given up to cocoanut culture, and it is a common phrase that the uses of the cocoanut palm are as numerous as the days of the year.

The shaft of the areca palm is erect, unlike the cocoanut shaft, which curves. The significance of the areca nut chiefly is realized in India, to which it is exported from Ceylon. Everywhere in India, alike in the most cultivated native circles and

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PERADENIYA GARDENS AND FICUS TREE, KANDY

among the poorer people, one encounters the chewing of the areca nut, the value of which is both digestive and mildly stimulating. Portions of the nut are combined with various spices and the whole wrapped in the betel leaf, forming a small package which may be thrust into the mouth. The flavor is by no means unpalatable, as the writer had the opportunity of knowing when daintily served with betel at a very choice reception in the house of a native judge in the Panjab. The habitual chewing of the betel and areca produces that reddening of the teeth and of the lips which is characteristic in India.

The palmyra palm, less known to the West by name, is by many regarded as the richest plant in the East. In the Jaffna Peninsula, at the northern end of Ceylon, it is estimated that there are eight millions of palmyra palms, the products of which supply one-fourth of the food of a large population.

Beyond doubt the most splendid sight among the palms of Ceylon is the talipot, the botanical history of which has in it almost a strain of sublimity. For sixty or eighty years the talipot rises in the Ceylon forest, bearing no fruit but steadily mounting upward until it towers far above its companions. When it has attained this superior altitude, as if gathering together all its vital forces to attain the consummation of being, it puts forth at its summit a grand crown of cream colored blossoms, twenty feet high, to see which people will travel for many miles. These plume-like blossoms can be descried from afar, accentuating the unbroken green of the forest. Looking down from the heights of the railway line near Kandy, we saw three talipots in bloom. After the bloom of the talipot has exhibited itself for a brief period, the tree which bore it dies, its life being yielded up in the one supreme effort to produce that which is the very coronation of nature in the Sinhalese jungle.

Amid a great vision of breadfruit trees, coffee bushes, crimson rhododendrons and eucalyptus, he who has traveled by rail from Colombo through the exciting mountain passes near the two thousand feet level, finds himself at the Royal Botanical Gardens of Peradeniya, possibly the noblest gardens in the world. Pictures, however faithful, can but feebly display the glories of this place; to have visited which is to have received upon the mind an impression of beauty that neither time nor change, nor the sordid contrasts of cities can "utterly abolish or destroy."

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ENGLISH COLONIAL EXPERIENCE AND AMERICAN COLONIAL PROBLEMS

BY

N. DARNELL DAVIS

AUDITOR-GENERAL OF BRITISH GUIANA

IT was in 1774 that, "contrary to his consummate prudence, and casting horoscopes of empires like Rousseau," Horace Walpole, foretelling that the next Augustan age would dawn on the American side of the Atlantic, predicted the appearance of a Thucydides at Boston and a Xenophon at New York. The gossipping seer of Strawberry Hill failed, however, to foresee that, within two years from the date of his forecast, the American colonies would have declared their independence; that, within seven years more, that independence would be recognized by Great Britain; and that, within the space of time covered by but the lives of a son and a granddaughter of King George the Third (the Duke of Kent and Queen Victoria), the descendants of the revolted American colonists would drive the Spanish government from the New World, and themselves become possessed of a colonial empire.

It was their training under free institutions, when British colonies, that prepared the United States to start on a career of nationality, with all the stability of an old established government, in noble contrast to the condition of recurring revolutions of the Spanish republics of South America, which were founded by colonists bred under despotic rule. The American colonists of the latter part of the seventeenth century resisted taxation imposed by a House of Commons, where a ministerial majority was "kept" by pensions, sinecures, places, peerages and the allotting of loans, below the market rate, to members of parliament.

For colonies proper, whither the homeborn race is transplanted, and there forms the majority of the community, the old system of governor, council and assembly is the best. Experience proves, however, that government of a different form is advisable in mixed communities, where races other than of the parent state are in a majority. For possessions of this kind the best form of government is a governor with a legislative council. The council should consist of an equal number of officials (of government members) and of elective members; the governor, or some other official, presiding, with a deliberative and a casting vote as well. The governor should be instructed by the government at Washington as to the broad lines of policy on which the government of the colony should be carried on, but, as a rule, the details should be left to that official's judgment. Having the casting vote, the governor could always be held responsible for seeing that the colony was ruled in accordance with the views of the authorities at Washington. Excepting where the paramount interests of the United States were at stake, the prescribed policy should be to the advantage of the colony itself; and the governor should seldom use his deliberative, and still seldomer his casting vote, in the council. Where purely local questions are being dealt with, even the official members should be allowed to vote as they think best for the colony, it being always borne in mind by the officials that they not only represent all interests, but, also, in a special degree, the interests of the otherwise unrepresented colonists. The elective members should be persons qualified by a certain annual income, or a certain amount of property, and be elected for a fixed number of years by an electorate based upon income or property. It is desirable that any elected member who may disapprove of a measure passed by the council should have the right of entering his protest, and reasons therefor, on the minutes of the council, with a view to such protest being forwarded to

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the government at Washington for consideration by the latter before giving its assent to the measure protested against.

All business done by the council should be transacted in public. For the despatch of executive business, the governor should be assisted by an executive council consisting of three or four of the principal officials. But the matters dealt with by this body should be restricted in number; the governor being held to his own responsibility to dispose of ordinary routine affairs, while business of public concern had far better be dealt with in the light of day by the legislative council. Experience shows that it is to the advantage of the home government and of the governor, no less than of the governed, to let in the light of public discussion upon questions such as are often dealt with by a governor in executive council. The policy of the government should keep in view the gradual training up of the colonists to manage their own affairs, even though the end be not attained for a hundred years to come. Municipal government by town councils, local government boards, sanitary committees for districts, and the like, should be fostered everywhere, aided and encouraged by the governor of the colony. Excepting where the interests of the great republic are involved, local matters had better be left to the colonists to settle among themselves. It was a sagacious saying of King James II that "Barbados best knew what Barbados wanted."

Yet, after all, the form of the government that may be adopted for the Philippines and Porto Rico is not so important a factor as the choice of the men who are to administer it. As Pope pithily puts it, "Whate'er is best administered, is best." If it is necessary to have good measures, it is still more necessary to have good governors and other high officials, not only to work those measures, but to cope with those emergencies that will arise, in colonies as well as in states, when the public welfare, perhaps the public safety, must depend upon the character of those at the head of affairs. Experience has proved, in India especially, the truth of Canning's pronouncement in the House of Commons, in 1801, when he said: "Away with the cant of 'Measures, not men!'—the idle supposition that it is the harness and not the horses that draw the chariot along. No, sir, if the comparison must be made, if the distinction must be taken, men are everything, measures are comparatively nothing. I speak of times of difficulty and danger, when systems are shaken, when precedents and general rules of conduct fail; then it is that, not to that or to this measure—however prudently devised, however blameless in execution—but to the energy and character of individuals, a state must be indebted for its salvation."

One of the French fable-writers has put this matter very well. A king wished to learn how to govern well. On his travels, he observed that, while one shepherd's flock was devastated by wolves, another shepherd's flock remained in entire security. The king desired to learn the secret, with the following result:

"What is your secret? Tell us."
"Sire," quoth the shepherd, "there's not much to tell.
"My secret is: I choose my sheep-dogs well."

As a preliminary to the establishment of an efficient colonial service, there must be a cast-iron understanding between the two political parties of the republic, that the noxious spoils system shall be kept outside of the colonies. The fact that such a system was adopted by Portugal can hardly be quoted in its favor. The British system of appointing officials "during good behavior" might well be adopted by the American government, for the general body of public servants; while governors might hold their appointments for six years, as under the British system, or for some fixed term of years, as to the American government might seem fit. As good governors are not picked up every day, it should be open to the government to extend a governor's service beyond the fixed term and to reappoint him for a second term, where the public interest requires it.

The selection of fit persons as governors will be one of the most responsible of the duties of the American government toward its colonial dependencies. It will hardly serve the purpose to look for precedents among the governors of the American colonies before the Revolution. Colonel Lovelace, the governor of New York in the latter part of the seventeenth century, for instance, held views that would hardly fit in with modern

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ideas, when he laid down that "The method of keeping the people in good order is severity and laying such taxes as may give them liberty for no thought but how to discharge them." The pages of Bancroft may, indeed, be studied with advantage, for warnings as to many kinds of men that should not be appointed to be governors. The British government was not always as careful as it is now, in its selection of governors. One qualification for a governor is damned to everlasting fame in Pope's lines:

> Who, having lost his credit, pawned his rent,
> Is, therefore, fit to have a government.

Sydney Smith wrote: "It is common, we know, to send a person who is somebody's cousin, but when a new empire is to be founded the treasury *should* send out into some other part of the town for a man of sense and character." Again, the witty Canon of St. Paul's wrote: "Young surgeons are examined in Surgeon's Hall on the methods of cutting off legs and arms before they are allowed to practice surgery. An examination on the principles of Adam Smith and a license from Mr. Ricardo seem to be almost a necessary preliminary for the appointment of governors." But such things are, happily, of the past. To-day governors are usually chosen from members of either House of Parliament, or from the Imperial, or the Colonial Civil Service. Occasionally a military man is appointed, but for the most part such an officer has previously served in some civil capacity. There is the same prejudice, among English colonists of to-day, against purely military governors that Tacitus speaks of in his "Life of Agricola," as existing among the Romans of that time against military pro-consuls. Public business, whether in a colony or a parent state, requires to be learned like any other business. Hence, a man who has had no other than a military training is not likely to become a statesman, merely because he has been appointed to be a governor; while a governor who has had some military training before he became a civil servant is all the better equipped for his administration. Such, for instance, was the case of Sir Hercules Robinson, the well-known governor of many British colonies, who was for some years governor of the Cape of Good Hope, and was raised to the British peerage, as Lord Rosmead. Perhaps the best kind of governor that the American government could send to Porto Rico and the Philippines would be an American statesman out of place; one who had served in the Senate, or in the House of Representatives, but no longer was a stalwart party man. Such a man would be especially fit for government if he had successfully served as a Secretary of State in one or more of the presidential terms. There must, surely, be some men of the state in the great republic, who would be patriotic enough to undertake proconsular duties. They would have their reward in shaping for good the destinies of young communities, and, on their return home, they would read the welcome of approving fellow citizens in a nation's eyes. To none such would the reproach be applicable that upbraided one

> Who, born for the universe, narrowed his mind,
> And to party gave up what was meant for mankind.

Besides the careful selection of governors, great judgment should be exercised in the choice of the principal officers who should be their advisers when they needed advice, and who would be directly in charge of the administration of the chief departments of the colonial government. Such officials are: the Secretary of the colony (called the Colonial Secretary, or Government Secretary in British colonies); the Attorney-General; the Auditor-General, and the Treasurer, the chief financial officers; the Surgeon-General, or principal medical officer; the Inspector-General of Police; the Colonial Civil Engineer, or head of the Public Works Department; the Commissioner of Lands and Mines; the Comptroller of Customs, and the Postmaster-General. The governor should not treat any of these officials as mere clerks, or tools, but as fellow-workmen, remembering the old Roman maxim, that "the dignity of the governor depends upon the dignity of the governed." No capable governor could do better than take as his model that pre-eminently great British governor-general of India, the Marquis Wellesley, whose attitude toward his officials is thus described by James Mill, a hostile critic in other respects: "The governor-general, amid the talents for command which he

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possessed in a very unusual degree, displayed two qualities of primary importance. He has seldom been surpassed in the skill with which he made the choice of his instruments; and, having made choice of his instruments, he communicated to them, with full and unsparing hands, the powers which were necessary for the end they were employed to accomplish."

It is very desirable that as many qualified natives as practicable should be employed in the administration of the colonies. Their local knowledge and familiarity with the languages of the localities would render their services of much avail to the government, while their employment in the administration of the business of their native land would give them an interest in upholding the government, as well as conduce to general contentment. The Spanish colonists of America bitterly resented their exclusion from the government service, and well they might, when the very clerks of the government offices were always exclusively European.

As regards the salaries of colonial officials, an opinion of Mr. Poultney Bigelow is unquestionably correct: "The governor and officials generally should be paid highly, in order to ensure the best work of the best men, and above all to remove public servants from the temptation of making money by indirect means." This is the British system, adopted after many years of experience in India, when scandal after scandal warned the home government that a radical change was found necessary. The British system debars its officials from entering into any other business. It also provides pensions for its officials, on their retiring from the public service on account of age or of ill health. The pay of British civil servants, in the colonies, is high only as compared with the salaries given in the colonies of foreign countries. Excepting in India but few officials can save anything from their pay. The salaries are sufficient to enable civil servants to live in comfort and be beyond temptation of bribery. The risk of losing a certain salary, with pension rights, acts as a deterrent to wrongdoing and an encouragement to welldoing.

The Portuguese in early days allowed their officials to trade, paying them only small salaries; and the Dutch forbade their officials to trade, paying them only small salaries. Both systems proved failures. Spanish officialism seems to have been a veiled system of plunder. As to the modern German system a wealthy Berliner has said: "It is impossible yet to do anything in a German colony, there is too much government. Instead of getting the best man and paying him a high salary, they pay a dozen men shabbily, and get but the common run of officials, and you can't ask for anything worse than that, at least in the tropics. Why, the German government does not pay the governor of a colony as much as I pay an overseer! My manager would not change places with the governor of East Africa."

The salaries to be paid to officials in the American colonies must be fixed according to the revenues of the respective colonies. It should be a recognized principle that each colony should pay its own way, and be thoroughly self-supporting. The cost of living; the degree of responsibility of the duties to be discharged; the healthiness, or otherwise, of the station, are elements that all have to be considered in fixing salaries, and, above all, the power of the colony to pay them. The pensions of ordinary officials are paid by the colonies themselves, under British rule, but the pensions of governors are paid by the imperial government under a special Act of Parliament. In order to free governors from bias, for or against any system of taxation, it will be well for the American government to adopt the British system of providing, in tax laws, that governors shall be exempt from duties and taxes of all kinds.

With the Philippines and Porto Rico already in hand, it would be well for the United States to provide for a separate department, with a secretary at its head, to superintend the administration of the colonies. For the good government of the colonies, this is absolutely necessary. When the British colonies were administered by the Secretary-at-War, the colonists nicknamed their chief "the Secretary-at-War with the Colonies." The American nation has entered upon the stage of expansion. It must act up to its responsibilities. *Te regere imperio populos, Romane, memento.*

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THE PRESENT CONDITION OF MUSIC

BY

FELIX BOROWSKI

PROFESSOR IN CHICAGO MUSICAL COLLEGE

AT the beginning of the nineteenth century the musical supremacy of the world had passed from Italy into the keeping of Germany. At the commencement of the twentieth century another change would appear to be in process of formation. The gradual musical decline of Germany can be accounted for on other grounds than those suggested by the impossibility of artistic domination being held in perpetuation by any one race.

Commercialism may be answerable, at least in part, for Germany's loosening hold on her musical sovereignty, for while engrossing pursuit of commerce is by no means detrimental to artistic enjoyment, it is not conducive to artistic production.

At the birth of the nineteenth century Beethoven and Haydn were at the zenith of their powers and Schubert was commencing a career of artistic glory. Before Beethoven's death there had been born Mendelssohn, Schumann and Wagner. A comparison between that period and this demonstrates that, musically speaking, there are no giants in these days, and even the most remarkable living composers, such as Grieg or Dvorak, are not Germans. Of living German musicians the one most discussed is undoubtedly Richard Strauss. This young master's claim to fame is based largely upon his orchestral "tone poems," although he has written much in other departments of composition. That his orchestral works are destined to immortality is seriously to be doubted. These compositions depend for their effect not so much upon what is said in them as in the manner of saying it. That Strauss is in possession of a wonderful mastery over the technicalities of his art is undeniable. But the greatness of a work must not be looked for in its complexity or the ingenuity of its coloring. Beauty of sound must always be the first consideration, and beauty is not an ever-present constituent of Strauss's works.

The methods of Richard Strauss have attracted many imitators who are expending their energies upon compositions written for gigantic orchestras and concerned with subjects of recondite profundity. In reviewing their efforts and those of their leader, it would seem as if the art of writing program music had reached its furthest stage of development. When, in the sixteenth century, Jannequin produced his näive attempts at descriptive music, he little guessed that the eventual outcome of his essay would be the mixture of music and metaphysics which is ours to-day. Such a type of modern program music may be discovered in Strauss's tone-poem, "Thus spake Zarathustra," a composition which is founded on Nietzsche's literary production of the same name, a work which we are told is "half philosophy, half fiction, half an ethical sermon, half a story," and having for its hero "a ghost, a type existing nowhere; an ideal reflected in a human image."

To turn from this phase of modern German art to forms which are less imbued with subtlety, it will be found that in the domain of chamber music Germany still occupies the high place which has been hers since Beethoven. The thoughtfulness and intellectual caliber of the German mind is well suited to the exacting requirements of the quartet or the symphony. But Germany has declined in dramatic composition. Wagnerism may, perhaps, be responsible for this deterioration of the national opera; for Wagnerism minus genius, or at any rate dramatic sense and some feeling for melody, is the musical abomination of desolation.

Music in England is in a flourishing condition. British composers have lived down the contempt with which, within the memory of living man, they have been regarded by their continental colleagues. There are, indeed, two or three who have climbed high in the estimation of the

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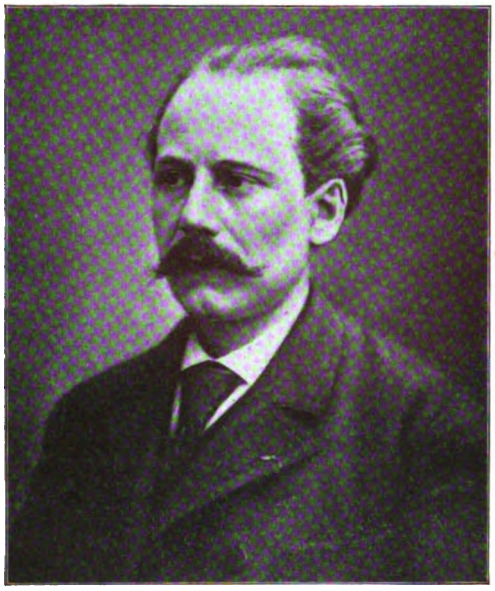

JULES EMILE FRED MASSENET

musical world, and there is at least one, Richard Elgar, whose works have placed him in the front rank of the world's masters. For there is that within Richard Elgar which has been denied to so many of his British colleagues.

It is only in the nature of things that Elgar's *chef-d'oeuvre* should be an oratorio, since the oratorio is the natural heritage of every music-loving Anglo-Saxon. "The Dream of St. Gerontius" is, however, not an oratorio of the stereotyped pattern. It is dramatic, intense, full of a human pathos which, at times, is extremely moving. The mastery of technical difficulties which is demonstrated in the works of Elgar is shared by many musicians who are fellow countrymen of the composer of "Gerontius." Counterpoint has long been the fetich of the British composer. Technical correctness, rather than inspiration, has too often been the purpose of his striving. But with the advent of the younger men a new order of things is developing and the importance of musical Britain would seem to loom large among the possibilities of the not very distant future.

Of the more conservative musicians, those who play the most prominent part in British art may be said to be Sirs Hubert Parry, Villiers Stanford and Alexander Mackenzie. The works of the two last present most interest when they reflect the nationality of their composers. The "Irish" symphony and the opera, "Shamus O'Brien," of Stanford, are works in which the national element in music plays an exceedingly attractive part, and the same may be said of the "Scotch Rhapsodies," the violin "Pibroch" and similar works of Alexander Mackenzie. It would seem that if the British school is to become possessed of any distinct and well defined individuality, that individuality must be sought for in the direction of the folk-song. The younger composers of Britain who are shaping the musical destinies of their country are beginning well. It is true that many of them hang on to the mantles of Brahms and Wagner, as did their fathers before them, but it is Brahms and Wagner plus ideals and imagination. It is rather curious that the foremost of these young men, Samuel Coleridge Taylor, should be only semi-British, for not only the personality but the music of this composer demonstrates a negroid origin.

Turning to a nation which for nearly three hundred years has played no insignificant part in the history of music, we find that the French are bending their energies to phases of art which have hitherto seemed to be incompatible with their national idiosyncracies. The one form of musical composition which, ever since the days of Lulli, has engrossed the attention of French composers and their audiences, has been the opera. The majority of modern French musicians still seek their laurels on the stage, and of living representatives the most typical and at the same time the most gifted is Jules Massenet. The author of "Werther" embodies in his works all the peculiar characteristics of French music. That the effectiveness of these works is the sole outcome of Massenet's individuality would be claiming too much. Massenet has learned something from Wagner, and who has not? He has also, in certain works, not disdained to follow in the path of the modern Italians, but Gounod has influenced him most of all. Ultra refinement of melody and harmony and sensuousness of style are Massenet's most prominent characteristics.

As previously hinted, French composers are no longer confining their whole atten-

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tion to the opera. A new school has arisen which assigns to dramatic composition a subordinate place and makes the composition of the higher forms, symphonic and chamber music, the principal aim of artistic endeavor. César Franck was the progenitor of the new ideas, and while he lived Franck taught by precept and example those truths of art which have resulted in very remarkable additions to the literature of French music. In the works of Franck and in those of his followers many deviations from accepted traditions may be discovered. The harmonic construction is exceedingly daring, and the form is often so free as to be vague. But whatever may be the faults of the new school, it may pride itself on the virility of its ideas, a merit which is of significant importance when it is remembered that the chief defect of French music has been its sugariness and overrefinement. Since the death of César Franck, in 1890, the leader of the school may be said to be Vincent d'Indy, although others, such as Ernest Chausson, Camille Benoit, Augusta Holmés, have, by their work, attracted the interested attention of musicians in many lands. Artistic radicalism has also been applied to the opera, notably by Gustave Charpentier, who, with his "Louise," has achieved considerable notoriety in his own country and in Germany.

Although France has not, until recently, accomplished anything of importance in the composition of the higher forms, at least one composer, Camille Saint-Saëns, has long been distinguished for his achievement in serious composition. Saint-Saëns represents a not ineffective combination of French polish with German thoughtfulness, and he, of all French composers, has been the one most generally respected by lovers of higher class music.

If France has made but few additions to the world's splendid literature of the symphony and of chamber music, Italy has accomplished still less in this direction. Her composers who have achieved anything of value in this branch can be counted on the fingers of one hand. In the province of dramatic composition Italy has always stood well to the front. She can boast of a long and almost unbroken succession of famous opera

CHARLES CAMILLE SAINT-SAËNS

composers, from Monteverde, in the sixteenth, to Verdi, in the nineteenth century. The closing years of last century saw the establishment of a new school of opera writing; a school which depends for its popularity upon the melodramatic and turgid character of its products. Probably its chief virtue lies in the recognition that an effective opera must be based upon an effective text. The passionate intensity of Pietro Mascagni's "Cavalleria Rusticana" brought forth the enthusiastic admiration of the whole musical world. That Mascagni failed to grasp the whole significance of his success is to be discovered in the numerous failures which succeeded his first opera. But other Italians profited by his prosperity no less than by his adversity. The public craved for excitement, there were opera writers willing and ready to provide it. Leoncavallo came out with his "Pagliacci," the success of which should alone have convinced Mascagni that in composing idyllic scenes, such as "L'Amico Fritz," he was following a track which could lead only to the arid wastes of disappointment and failure. Since "Pagliacci" many Italian composers have endeavored to repeat the early successes. It is, however, evident that

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the public is weary of such overstrenuous productions as the Italians offer it. Of the young Italians who started out with roseate hopes of immortality, only Puccini, the composer of "Tosca" and "La Boheme," has succeeded in holding the interested attention of the musical public.

Perhaps the freshest fields of musical productivity have been developed by Scandinavian and Slavonic composers. Both races have utilized the folk-song as the starting point of their endeavors, much to their advantage. In regard to the Scandinavian writers a curious fact must be noted in the comparative infecundity of Sweden as compared with Denmark and Norway. Of the Scandinavian composers the most eminent, Edvard Grieg, has, more than any other, pushed forward the claims of his national art. The unconventionality of harmony, the never-failing melodiousness, has caused the music of Grieg to be more widely appreciated by every class of musical public than that of any other living writer. That Grieg's genius is best adapted to the smaller forms is apparent from a study of his works, and that the Norwegian composer recognizes his own limitations is demonstrated by the scantiness of his contributions to symphonic and chamber music. The more radical element in Scandinavian music is represented by Christian Sinding, whose music is rapidly gaining favor as it is better known.

Of the Slavonic race, two nations are playing important parts in the development of modern music. Russia and Bohemia may be said to have commenced a separate musical existence as late as the nineteenth century. When, in 1840, Glinka discovered the musical possibilities of Russian folk-songs, he inaugurated an era of musical development in Russia which, at the beginning of the twentieth century, has arrived at wonderful maturity. Much of the distinction to which Russian music has attained is due to the efforts of Anton Rubinstein, who founded the conservatories at St. Petersburg and Moscow and who encouraged to the fullest extent the cultivation of native ability. Of late years considerable influence has been exerted by the new Russian school, which has for its aim the exploitation of the national folk-song, more particularly in connection with dramatic composition.

The composers who have been most active in support of their artistic principles are Alex Borodine, Modest Mussorgski (now dead), César Cui, Mily Balakireff and Nicholas Rimsky-Korsakoff. To the general public the most illustrious name in modern Russian music is that of Tschaikowsky. Although by no means unappreciated during his lifetime, this gifted man did not live to see the universal acclamation of his genius. It is somewhat curious that Tschaikowsky's art should have been regarded with coldness by the new Russian school. It was said that his style was, like that of his teacher, Rubinstein, too German. It is probably this infusion of western restraint into its turbulent Slavonic impulsiveness that makes the music of Tschaikowsky so attractive to the average musician. The legitimate successor of Tschaikowsky in Russian art is Alexander Glazounoff, a composer who possesses, if not the genius of his predecessor, a very highly developed gift for the composition of the higher forms.

In Bohemia the chief representative of national art is Anton Dvorak, perhaps the greatest living composer. In his works the national element is even more strongly represented than in those of Tschaikowsky. The technique is not less fine, but the style is less imbued with the sense of tragic sorrow so prevalent a constituent of the Russian's music.

Of the countries of Europe yet undiscussed, Holland, Spain, Portugal and Greece are accomplishing little of musical importance. Switzerland possesses a school of composers not, however, distinguished for any well defined individuality but largely swayed by French and German influences.

The composers who comprise what may be called the American school have not as yet made any marked impression upon modern art. American music is nevertheless making considerable progress. Ten years ago the music of this country was almost an unknown quantity in other lands. To the European, American machinery, American farming, American commercial enterprise was something to be respected and admired, but American music—! Two native composers, Mac-

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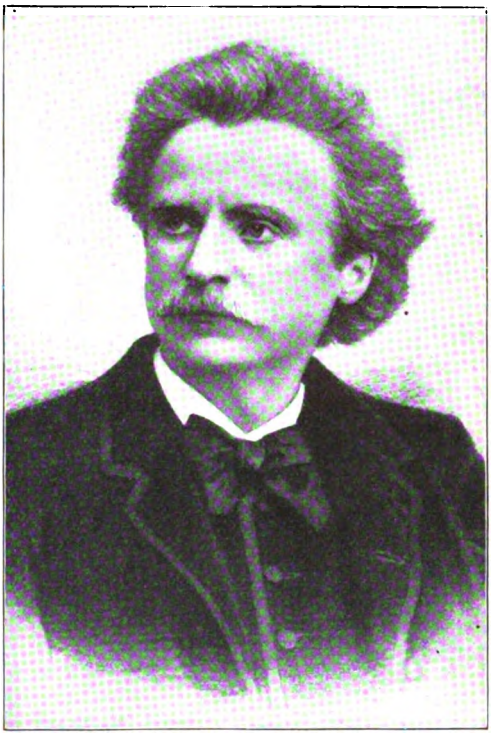
dowell and Parker, have accomplished much in dissipating the notion prevalent abroad that the possible supremacy of America in art is incompatible with the supremacy of America in commerce. Parker's successes have been won principally in England and in choral composition. Macdowell, who is undoubtedly the most gifted of American writers, has made his influence cover a wider field. There is in his work every evidence that he has something to say and an unconventional way of saying it. Mr. Macdowell has lately been demonstrating to European critics the possibilities of American music as represented in his own creative efforts. The music-loving community of Germany and Britain have not failed to appreciate those possibilities and the American school will henceforth figure more prominently in European art. Neither Macdowell nor any other American composer can be said to be possessed of a distinctly national individuality. There is no such thing as American music in the sense that there is Russian or Scandinavian music. Various attempts have been made to exploit the peculiarities of Indian art, and the tunes of the negro have also been experimented with with a larger measure of success. Although the day of America's separate musical existence has not yet dawned, that the nation will eventually develop its own musical language and produce remarkable results with it is not to be doubted. What discouragements the native composer experiences arise from the indifference of his own public. American opera is almost unknown; American symphonies lie on dusty shelves for lack of sufficient interest in their production. Practically but one publisher in the country undertakes the risk of printing such works.

The interpretative side of present musical art may be dismissed briefly. In instrumental performances the Teutonic and Slavonic races still lead the world, more especially in piano playing. The number of virtuosi has increased so largely and the standard of execution is so high that a newcomer discovers fame to be an almost inaccessible attainment. The public, too, has been surfeited; it is *blasé*, as is evident from its indifference to the efforts of even the finest artists whose merits have not been bruited abroad by



EDVARD GRIEG

the sensational methods of the press agent. In vocal art, modern conditions discover the Italian artist to be no longer in supreme possession of the field. Owing to the changes brought about by Wagnerian influences, German singers have stepped into prominence. Cosmopolitanism is, however, the outstanding feature of modern vocalism. In this department of musical art America has achieved brilliant results. Orchestral performance has reached a high state of perfection and orchestral music is appreciated by the public as never before.

In summing up the tendencies of modern music it would appear that increasing freedom of form and the association of music with a program are the two most obvious factors in our present stage of development. From the ideas and practices of the classicists we are gradually drifting away. Even the revolutionary art of such moderns as Liszt and Berlioz is beginning to sound old-fashioned. What the future will bring forth it were difficult to predict with certainty, but it is unquestionable that there are still rich fields of musical territory unexplored.

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CHRISTIAN SERVICE IN CITY SLUMS

I. NEW YORK

BY

GEORGE C. LORIMER

A NURSE—and a lady to the tips of her fingers, cultured, refined and accomplished—after administering a bath to a fourteen-year-old much besoiled girl from a squalid neighborhood, asked in a cheery, musical voice: "Were you ever bathed before?"

The girl, meditatively and as seeking to recall a far-off event, replied: "Yes; I had a bath one summer, a long while ago."

Another intrepid worker chivalrously proposed to introduce a maculate, dirty

INTERIOR OF EAST SIDE TENEMENT HOUSE

specimen of a boy into the ineffable delights of cleansing ablutions, when he answered decisively: "Can't be, marm; ma's sewed me up for the winter!"

And such, indeed, proved to be the fact. The lad was the son of an immigrant *moujik* from a Russian *mir,* whose thoughtful mother, following the custom of her own impoverished country, and to save herself from unnecessary trouble and the heir of all her hopes from undue familiarity with water, had wrapped him up in rags and clouts and had fastened them securely with her needle. There he stood before the wondering missionary, prepared for the inclemency of the approaching season, and not to be unrolled until after the vernal equinox.

These children are only samples of an innumerable army of little ones who swarm in and about the slums of New York, and who have as meager an acquaintance with truth, honesty and decency as they have with the salutary efficacy of the scrubbing brush. Over fifty-five thousand of such boys and girls, who, if not all products of the slums, are gravitating toward them, were in some measure relieved or helped last year by that remarkable organization, "The Children's Aid Society." And their pitiable plight and their numbers at once suggest the sadness, the dreariness, the desolateness of that tattered, foul and slimy region, the slums of New York.

We enter this domain from the north, a little below Fourteenth street, and proceed southward through Chatham square and onward to the harbor, bounded by Third avenue on the west and by the river on the east. There are other black spots in the metropolis—as on the west side and in the tenderloin redlight district—and the one we have specifically outlined is not all black by any means, but rather piebald. There are overcrowded neighborhoods within these limits, respectable enough, but poor and gradually opening into other neighborhoods where the poverty is greater, and even into regions where want, vice and misery herd together in sunless rooms, in unsanitary tenements, and in hallways and doorways reeking with filth and where tuberculosis finds congenial soil. There are in Manhattan 200,000 and in Brooklyn 125,000 such rooms absolutely without light or ventilation, and it is not therefore surprising that the authorities report an average of 20,000 cases of tuberculosis a year, with some 8,000 deaths, 1,787 of these occurring in hospitals, and in 1890 37 of them occurring on stairways and in entranceways.

Within this district there must be upward of 140,000 children out of the Sunday school; and as far as can be judged

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from prevailing conditions they are practically without moral or religious instruction. It likewise includes the terrible Fourth Ward, cursed with no end of cheap saloons and with disorderly places of the lowest type, and thronged with inebriates, vagabonds and the very riff-raff and waste of wretched humanity. More arrests for wrong-doing are probably made in this ward annually than in any other section of the city, and more applications are made for lodging places at the police station than elsewhere. It is an area steeped in rum, ruffianism and rakish and rampant roguery—and as heathenish and as insensible to goodness as ever Uganda was in the early days of Mackay's heroic service.

EAST SIDE STREET, NEW YORK

Contiguous to Ward Four, and running north, a locality is reached, less than a square mile in extent, which is reputed to be the most densely populated on earth; over two hundred thousand souls struggling for existence within its narrow boundaries. Here Jews from Russia, Poland, Germany, Austria and Hungary are packed together as closely as herrings in a tub; though the simile is inadequate, as the fish are carefully preserved in salt, whereas in this stifling community salt of every kind speedily loses its savor. The inhabitants are compelled by sheer necessity to live as far as possible in the streets. Hence, the thoroughfares are crowded, and usually present an animated and picturesque, though not an idyllic Arcadian, appearance.

If the curious would inspect one of the characteristic buildings in which not a few of these people toil for a miserable pittance, he need not go very far from the Bowery to find it. Enter the first that comes to hand and it will serve as a representative of nearly all the others. The house is old, worn, worm-eaten and vermin infested, and is usually several stories high. The stairway is dark, the steps broken and the air heavy and ill-smelling. On each floor the rooms are overfilled with men and women at work on various kinds of garments. These rooms are unfit for human beings to inhabit. The windows are dirty and begrimed, the floor is littered with coal, garbage and tailoring remnants; the ventilation is utterly inadequate, and the atmosphere is charged with cigarette smoke and with the indescribable odor that proceeds from heated irons and smoking cloth, intermixed with a sickening effluvium from the toilet recess which is shut off in one corner to be used indiscriminately by both sexes. From such a death-trap the intrepid visitor will be glad to depart, but he will do so with a heavy heart and wondering what can become of a city that tolerates such terrible plague spots.

The study of the slums and the portions of the metropolis bordering on the slums, and which in some degree must be infected by them, brings to light certain significant and momentous facts. Of these the first is that they are essentially foreign and would hardly exist were it not for the inordinate inflow of immigrants. The latest statistics assign to New York a total alien element of 1,270,080 in a population of about two million, the element consisting of those born in other lands and their immediate descendents. During March of this year 63,000 immigrants landed at this port, and last year Italy sent us 77,275 and Austria-

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ITALIAN CHURCH, MARINERS' TEMPLE

Hungary 73,275, and it is estimated that before the next twelve months come to a close a million or more will invade these shores. Multitudes of these strangers prefer to remain in the city, and, consequently, such neighborhoods as I have described grow and thrive and become a peril to the whole community. I am not saying that all the dwellers in the slums are foreigners; for unquestionably many degenerate Americans are to be found there; only that the overwhelming majority is of foreign extraction and is being constantly recruited from alien lands. Cut off the supply from that source and in ten years the city would be comparatively free from the worst and most hopeless aspects of slum life. But this relief is not probable. Greed is here a mightier force than piety. There are many of our citizens whose interests prevent them from antagonizing the importations of cheap labor, and there are others who have large holdings in steamboat lines and to whom increase of immigration means increase of profits. And thus it goes; while we mouth patriotic platitudes and industriously plead for a high tariff, so as to keep labor from being Europeanized, we are crowding the market with alien competitors, and are introducing social conditions fatal alike to high manhood and popular government.

Another fact of considerable import is the increasing settlements of negroes in New York. Publicists as a rule overlook this feature in the problem of municipal purity and progress. There are fully sixty thousand of this race on Manhattan island, and while only a few relatively interblend with the populations I have portrayed, they have slum districts of their own, which, if they are not as large as where the white element preponderates, are no less foul and dangerous. Twenty thousand of these people have come to the city within the last ten years, and in one ward, where ten thousand of them dwell, there are ninety saloons, eighteen liquor stores, eight Raines' hotels, and only one colored church; and in another equally crowded, the thirteenth, there are 103 saloons, seven liquor stores, fourteen Raines' hotels and *no* colored church. And it has been estimated that if every negro, man, woman and child, in New York desired to attend religious services only one in five could be accommodated in their available meeting houses. What other result can proceed from this lack of ethical and spiritual training than demoralization and the increase of vice and crime? There is a negro question in the South, but, unless all signs fail, there will soon be a negro question in the North. Unless something is done we shall have a section of "darkest Africa" in the heart of this most imperial city,

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and one that may cast a blighting shadow on what is most highly to be prized.

And this brings me to a brief and general survey of what is being done in New York for the purification and redemption of its slums. A noble and brave battle is being waged by the forces that make for righteousness, and some of these, though not Christian in name, are thoroughly Christian in spirit. The Hebrews have their own charities and are doing their best to rescue their people from social degradation. The Roman Catholics have their ecclesiastical eleemosynary benefactions.

It is reported that there are 1,672 separate benevolent enterprises in New York city, not including those supported by the state or municipality. Of these there are thirty hospitals calling for about $2,000,000 a year for their maintenance, a sum that is provided principally by Christians and those who sympathize with them. There are institutional churches, gospel settlements, industrial schools, church houses, with a variety of privileges and helpful ministries from baths up to the study of music and painting, and orphanages, children's aid societies and children's friendly societies. These philanthropies are not all in the slums. Some of them border on slum districts and they are all engaged in preventing the extension of the slum, if few of them are really at work in its heart. The leaders in these gracious activities are the Episcopalians, the most fashionable and wealthy of our Protestant communions, and at the same time apparently the most aggressive and democratic. They are represented everywhere, in tenement, in hospital, in prisons, in dark places and in homes of crime and suffering—God bless them!

The Baptists are far from being idle or indifferent. The Fifth Avenue church has the Armitage House, and the Second Avenue Baptist church is doing fine institutional work on the edge of the slums. The City Mission Society will expend some $32,000, out of a total budget of $58,575, practically along institutional lines.

The Presbyterians, the Methodists and other Christian bodies are striving valiantly against the thick darkness of the city, of which the slum is the center.

TOMPKINS SQUARE PARK

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THE MARINERS' TEMPLE

And when we remember that in Manhattan and the Bronx we have only 564 Protestant meeting houses, the majority of them small and without architectural dignity, with only sittings for 288,693 worshipers out of a population approximating two millions, and that the city is cursed with 7,254 Raines' Law hotels and with one saloon to every 317 persons, we have reason for surprise and gratitude that as much is being done for the cleansing of our Augean stables as is reported from year to year.

As samples of special efforts on behalf of purity, right living and domestic happiness, the Salvation Army in the Bowery, the Gospel settlement on Clinton street, the New York Foreigners' mission, the Children's Aid Society and kindred organizations may be profitably studied. All these agencies seem to be necessary and worthy of support. But when we read the reports of children's aid societies we are amazed and humiliated that such neglect and suffering should be possible in a community whose realty is valued at $7,000,000,000, whose personalty is estimated at $3,000,000,000, and whose foreign commerce is rated at over $1,188,000,000 annually.

What can we expect for the future? We gather from reports of work undertaken among children that wherever "race suicide" may obtain, it does not prevail in the slums. The population is not falling off south of Fourteenth street, however it may be diminishing among the educated and the wealthy classes. And if the present ratio of increase and decrease continues and the slum with its sympathetic environment fails to be eliminated, probably the coming years will evolve graver and greater social problems than we confront. There are times when, reviewing the evils that flourish in the larger communities, we are tempted to wonder whether London, Paris, Glasgow, New York, may not ultimately degenerate so far as to become the mere slums of our civilization, the sewers, sluiceways and fetid marshes of our national social existence. As it is we hear repeated complaints at the decline of the patriotic civic spirit. Municipal greatness is now not a matter of pride with many of our leading citizens. They have but little interest in the city where they reside a few months in the year, while their real

SALVATION ARMY BARRACKS IN THE BOWERY

home is elsewhere among the mountains or by the lakes. Fashion, society engagements or some business affairs call them for a while to their town house, but they feel no vital identity with the community, do not lay to heart its perils and realize no genuine sense of responsibility for its welfare. It is conceivable that such a drift as this might grow and come to be characteristic of the better classes; and the result could not fail to be wholesale civic blight and demoralization.

But while such a calamity is conceivable it surely is not as yet likely, and can readily be averted in such a city as New York by an intelligent, earnest and generous effort on the part of the citizens to stamp out and eradicate the poison and pollution called the slum.

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THE PERMANENCE OF L'ART NOUVEAU

By JAMES WILLIAM PATTISON

THE New Art is "a movement, not a style"; declares Professor Hamlin, of Columbia University. Having enjoyed personal acquaintance with Professor Hamlin for many years and learned to admire him as a friend and as a sincere student of his profession—that of architecture—I take the liberty of differing from him as regards *l'Art Nouveau.* I do so because many aspects of it have excited my admiration and because it has already developed certain forms of beauty which are specific and unvarying. It is this last circumstance which determines its right to be called "a style."

What is a style? Let us seek for some examples, not in art. The manner of dressing the hair maintained for many years (and by no means unknown in our day) in which it is brushed high up over the head in a vast mass, is called pompadour. In the details of arrangement this varied from year to year, that is, the fashion changed. But the style is always pompadour. There was a style of coat worn in the time of the English King Charles, and well known in the time of the French Bourbons, which had large skirts and wide cuffs, embroidery and other individual features. Most important of all was its dignity. This changed in fashion as the years passed, but it never ceased to be the same style; so much so, that now we find its heir in the so-called Prince Albert frock coat. This is a style as contrasted with the "cutaway" or the sack coat, which are other styles. During the Directory in France we observe that women wore very short-waisted frocks. This style continued during the empire and is often known by the latter name. Pictures of Madame Recamier and the Empress Josephine show it to us.

The cut of a coat and the cut of a building are both architecture. Interior decoration and clothes have always followed the same laws of style. To-day we have no style in either our clothes or our interiors, but confuse many styles in a characterless manner, even as the condition of our present civilization is characterless.

Professor Hamlin says that Mr. Louis Sullivan, the distinguished architect of Chicago, was one of the first to design in *l'Art Nouveau;* a statement which must have surprised Mr. Sullivan. I am disposed to dispute the statement. He says this to illustrate his assertion that *l'Art Nouveau* is no more than a movement of protest and because Sullivan is an earnest protester against the narrow and dry conservatism of the generality of architects. The New Art is certainly a protest, but it is not merely that. He declares that the New Art is solely a personal movement, the whim of individualism, a vagary having no laws or specific character; that it is an "anything" so long as it totally avoids the dried fruit of classicism.

This I shall try to dispute. It must be admitted that the term, *Art Nouveau,* is used in the loosest manner and that anything which is not made according to some well-established formula of pillars and mouldings has been called by this abused name. However, looking at the arrangement of the Austrian picture galiery, contemplating its suitability, its utter abandonment of all that worn-out foolishness in pilasters and caps which

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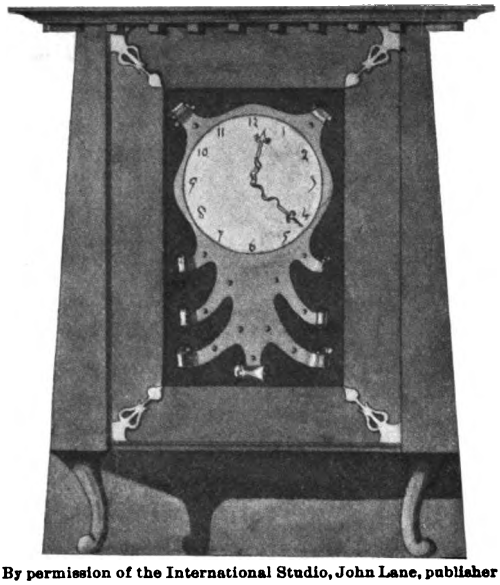

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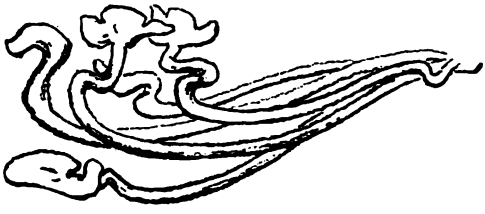
A CLOCK CASE

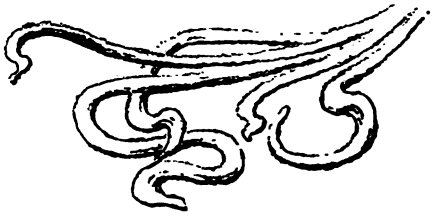
has wearied us these many cycles, we can declare that the continued practice of this treatment constitutes a style. Note the same sort of treatment in the chamber in the pavilion of M. Bing, of Paris, exhibited at the exposition of 1900, Paris, and see if it is not in the same "style," although designed in another country. But this will not satisfy our architectural friends, who demand that a style shall be ultra specific, its laws written with exactness, and invariable. They have been so long enslaved by their ruleful renaissance that their tastes and judgment are both enslaved by tradition. Because of the pleasing variety in the use of this new style, and the absence of hard and fast rules, I am in danger of being cried out at with, "Told you so; it's all individualism." But this plain treatment, consisting of borders and posts, without any attention to the orders of architecture, has been united sufficiently long to a specific sort of decoration to create what, in all fairness, has the right to be called a style. The work of Mr. Sullivan is pure individualism. It is quite wonderful in its variety and originality, but it is not *Art Nouveau.*

Probably the New Art will be reduced to a formula in the course of time. The more pity that this is the tendency of all things, because formulas are the death of spontaneity. We see here the same war which the painters have been waging with the classical academicians; the Barbizon school, the Impressionists and such artists as Whistler were all rebels against that which Mr. Hamlin calls "a style." The paintings of all these men, each different from the other, must be acknowledged to be in a certain style, though they are never in "the style." This is exactly the principle for which we are fighting.

The name of this new development in art originated in the establishment of M. Bing, of Paris, where are many artists designing always in the style. I do not use the term, artist, loosely. These men are trained in the art schools and many of them exhibit pictures continually in the *salon.* The same treatment is followed religiously in Germany, England and other continental countries. The individualists, of whom Professor Hamlin speaks, do not follow this style.

By studying the illustrations it will be seen that the peculiar decoration, which constitutes the leading feature of this style, is largely composed of certain curved lines (though they may be straight also), which start from nearly a common point and mount like the course of rockets in the sky, similar but variously diverging. Nowhere in the flight are the lines bending at the same rate of curva-





CROOK DESIGNS TYPICAL OF L'ART NOUVEAU

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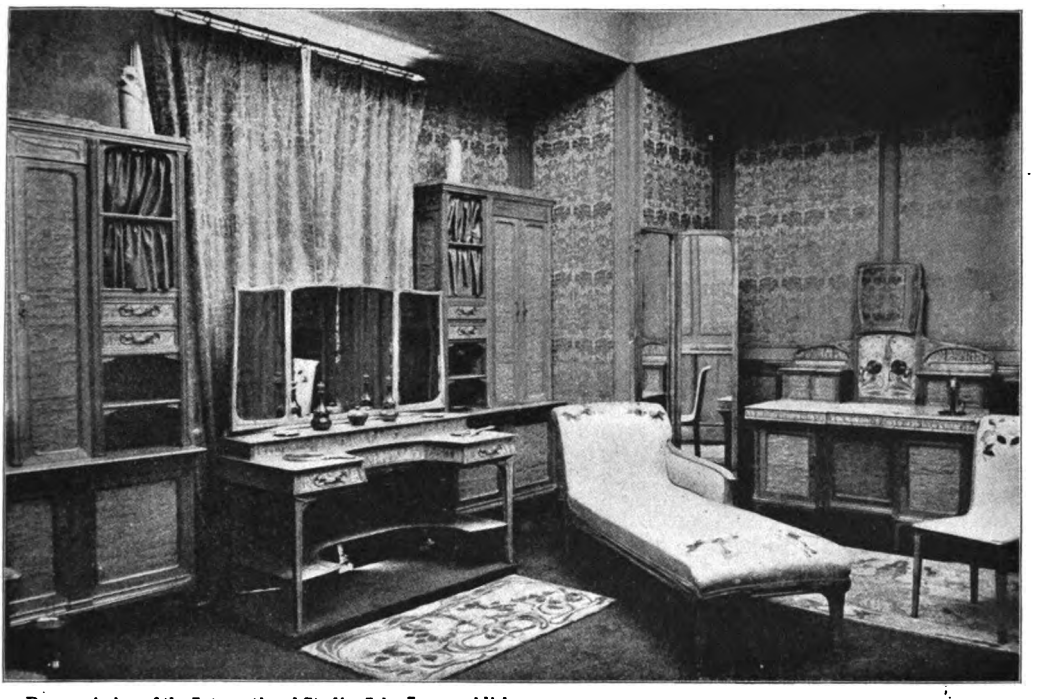

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DRESSING ROOM, DESIGNED BY G. DE FEURE

ture and no two are exactly alike in any way. This variety of curvature, that is, the change in the rate of the bending, is important to remember, and no two sides of a streak or moulding are alike exactly. This is not always observed, but is true of the best designs. When lines alone are used, the variations in their curves create the same effect. At the end of the curve, the lines or mouldings twist suddenly in a very marked manner, easier to illustrate than to describe in words.

There is no opportunity for individualism in this, except as much as should exist in all art of whatever style. All entirely untamed eccentricities are barred, because this style has found its fixity in many countries, which is not true of individualisms. It has standards already; as much so as Greek art, though not having as many forms. It required many centuries to invent that which we know as Greek architecture. The Romans jumbled all the forms of the Greeks together and Renaissance is only a name for the Roman jumble revivified, and then petrified.

Professor Hamlin seems to wish us to understand that the forms to be used in decoration must be found in nature, and suggests that they must be animal or vegetable forms. But why so? Nature if you like; but what is nature? Are forms of smoke nature's forms? I see close by me the shapes made by the grains of the wood in my furniture, very good hints for the designer in the New Art. There is a picture on the wall, the sea sands at low water. The retreating tide has left the sand wetted by streamlets which twist and turn delightfully. These are almost pure *Art Nouveau* patterns. Going to the woods, I have cut some branches of trees and selected several which give me the patterns of the new designs. These peculiar twisted shapes are caused by the accidents of the tree's growth or its life struggles, causing the branch to twist on itself. Is that legitimate nature? Listen! Form is form. Let us be respectful toward the toil and trouble which cause the ancient oak to be gnarled and the easy growth which makes the young willow graceful; and let us remember that when I throw down a twist of rope and it takes a picturesque form, it is the same Maker who works as when a regular flower is made; only this, that he never makes two

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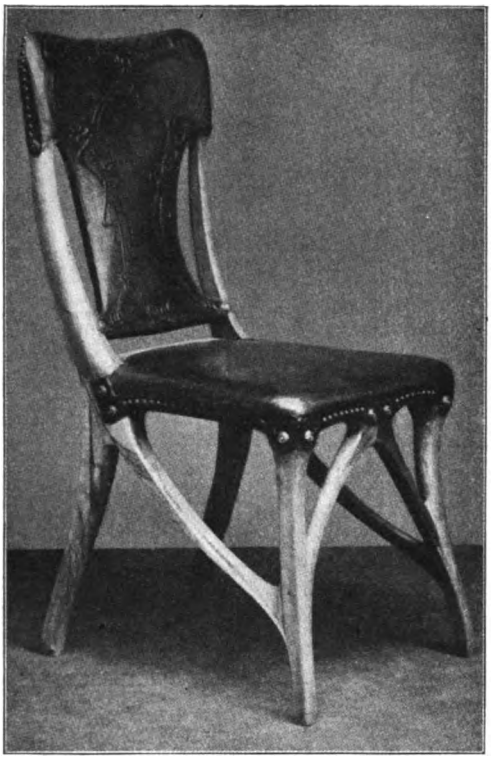

From the International Studio
CHAIR. BY E. GAILLARD

flowers alike or regular, even when of the same species and on the same bush. It is accident which keeps the world from getting stale. There are no accidents in Greek or Renaissance decoration. They are stale and putrefied; pardon, I intended to say petrified. Form is abstract. The beauty of the lily is in its grace first of all. Each line, taken by itself, is graceful, and so is any combination of these separate lines. Decorators are inclined to use these graceful shapes not as simulated lilies, but as abstract lines. It would seem that these statements should make clear the aims of the designers in the New Art.

The Japanese have taught us this lesson more than any other people. In the paintings and prints, they reduce the women's robes to abstract folds, making lines which are so remarkably *Art Nouveau* that it has often occurred to me that here is to be found the key to the peculiar puzzle, the shape of that crook on the terminals of their lines. Doubtless much of the peculiar structure of the borders and the framings of the New Art is borrowed from Japanese carpentry. Good proportions and dignity are important matters in architecture. Grace comes afterward. Greek and Roman architecture are usually very dignified. However, I can not conceive of anything more dignified than the *Art Nouveau* interiors here illustrated. If any designers indulge in fantasies which offend, that has no right to be laid to the discredit of the New Art. We have only to protest against the horrors and thus drive them out.

The *Art Nouveau* landscape here presented is by George de Feure, of the Bing establishment. He is a Hollander, born in Paris, though he still maintains his Dutch nationality, and his real name is Van Slyters. The appellation by which he is usually known is a *nom de guerre*. His pictures were exhibited in the Dutch section of the Grand Palais at the Exposition of 1900, and this auto-lithograph was one of the number; most of the others being in water colors.

For the benefit of those who are not familiar with the peculiarities of Dutch landscape, it may be explained that this *Art Nouveau* landscape represents two winding canals at different levels. The dyke which maintains the water in the

From the International Studio
INTERIOR, DECORATED BY M. NIEDERMOSER

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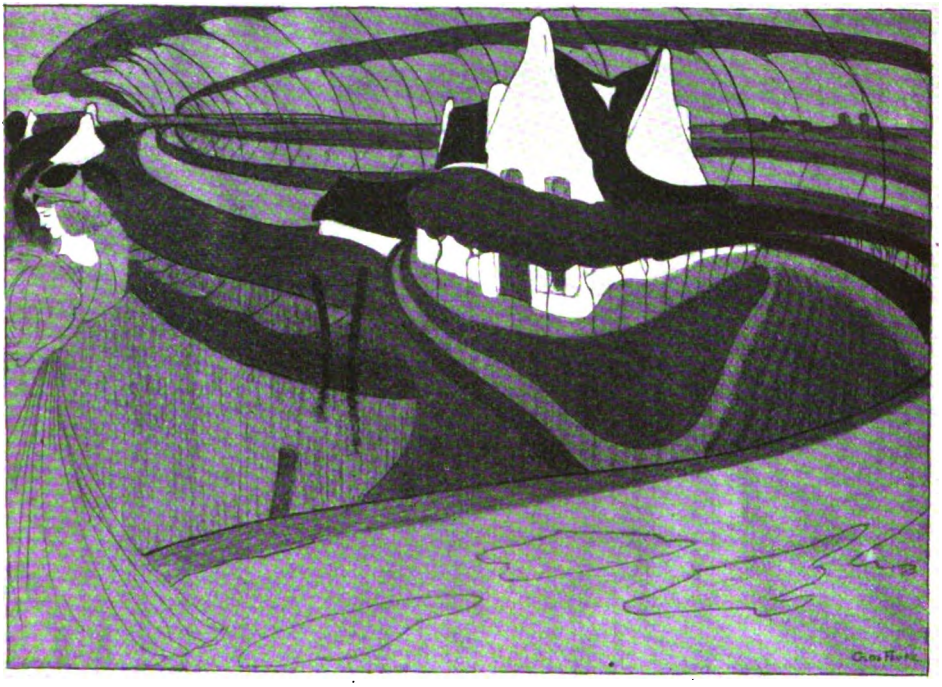

THE DYKES
A Dutch Landscape, by George de Feure

higher level is utilized as a turnpike; which winds behind the house and swings into the foreground. Each bank of the principal canal is bordered by trees, which the artist has reduced to a conventional treatment suggesting decorative forms of *Art Nouveau* character. In front of the house is a border of the cropped trees, so common in Holland, and on the lower level in front of the house lies a cabbage patch. The woman who walks the highway is reduced to the simplest terms possible. All the straight lines of the house have been reduced to *Art Nouveau* curves. The lithograph is interesting as an example of deliberate reduction of the forms of nature to abstract decorative treatment. Above all else, *Art Nouveau* should show the wit of the designer in this fashion of abstraction.

I had the pleasure of meeting M. George de Feure less than a year ago. He is handsome and shy; strictly attached to his art and very enthusiastic. In order to appreciate the delicacy and sensitiveness of his *Art Nouveau* carving, please try to draw the mouldings and reproduce the lines. He makes remarkable pottery, gold, silver and bronze jewelry and ornaments, and designs for rugs, wall-paper and stained glass.

In Germany and Austria many houses are designed in this style on the exterior. Unfortunately, some of these are absurdly extravagant and eccentric. Here lies the danger until the style is more determined. As yet, I have seen very little good work in *Art Nouveau* in America, though there is quite sufficient individualism among our workers.

There is an organization of workers in the style in Paris which is claiming and securing the attention of progressive people of refined taste. The German society, known as the "Secession" and composed largely of painters, is promoting *neue kunst,* as the style is called in that land. All this is a wonderful relief from the incubus of classical mannerism so long dragging its body of dryness along the dusty way of conservatism.

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SOME WOMEN LEADERS OF NATIONAL ORGANIZATIONS

BY

JANE A. STEWART

THE women who are leading in national organizations in the United States have come to their preëminence by virtue of marked administrative ability and of unswerving devotion to the particular phase of public endeavor in which they have enlisted. Some of them have occupied posts as leaders for many years. Some have only recently assumed

MRS. LILLIAN M. N. STEVENS

the responsibilities of their office. Some hold practically a life tenure, and others are leaders in organizations where rotation in office is the desideratum. All are types of the best womanhood of the country, broad in view, practical in effort, and demonstrating the possession of those rare qualities of heart and brain which are essential to able leadership.

Probably the most inclusive of national bodies of women is the National Council of Women, which aims to affiliate and bring in closer touch all national women's organizations of whatever ilk. The desirable end sought is that a more intimate knowledge of the work and aims of each may be shared by all and the duplication of societies be avoided.

A pioneer of California is Mrs. Mary Wood Swift, the president, who was elected to the leadership of the council at the executive session in New Orleans last spring (March, 1903). She is also a notable leader of women's movements on the Pacific coast, where she is identified with all the prominent patriotic, social and reform organizations, of some of which she is the founder.

Mrs. Swift is a woman of fine presence, great strength of mind, and liberal views. Her genius for leadership has caused her election to various offices, any one of which would be sufficient tax for the ordinary woman. She has been president of the State Daughters of the Revolution for the past five years, and is unable to secure release in spite of her reiterated suggestion that she be permitted to retire. The State Council of California Women, with seven thousand women enlisted in carrying out a vigorous public policy, was organized by Mrs. Swift, who has been its president from the beginning. She has also acted as president of the Congress of Women of the Pacific Coast ever since the sad death of its widely esteemed founder, the California philanthropist, Mrs. Sarah B. Cooper.

The pioneer national organization of women is the Woman's Christian Temperance Union, which has probably done more to make the way wider for women than any other single agency. While the W. C. T. U. has expanded under the unparalleled leadership of Frances Willard and Lady Henry Somerset into an inter-

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MISS SUSAN B. ANTHONY

national organization with members in every land, the World's Union, it is plain, receives its greatest impetus and power from the National W. C. T. U. of the United States, its promoter and factor.

Mrs. Lillian M. N. Stevens, of Maine, former treasurer of the National Council of Women, and for twenty-five years president of the Maine W. C. T. U., is the leader chosen by the late Frances Willard to be her successor in the presidency of the National Woman's Christian Temperance Union. Mrs. Stevens was born in Dover, Maine, and her home has always been within the borders of that state. Her first public work was teaching. At twenty-one she married Mr. Stevens, a leading business man of Portland, Maine, who is in strong sympathy with all her work, as is her only child, Mrs. Gertrude Stevens Leavitt. When the Maine W. C. T. U. was formed in 1874, Mrs. Stevens was made treasurer, and three years later became its president, a post she has occupied ever since. She has long been recognized as a national temperance leader, serving the National W. C. T. U. as assistant recording secretary and vice-president-at-large before her election at Miss Willard's death, in 1898, to the presidency.

While there are many able and renowned leaders and laborers in the steadily growing ranks of the suffrage hosts, there is, undoubtedly, no one who combines in so marked a degree the varied talents of leadership as Mrs. Carrie Chapman Catt, Miss Anthony's choice as her successor in the suffrage work. The life of Mrs. Catt has been full of change and varied experience. As teacher, school superintendent, journalist and lecturer she has made a brilliant record. Mrs. Catt is a native of Wisconsin, and was educated in Iowa, where she had her career as an educator. With her first husband, Mr. Leo Chapman, she became joint editor and owner of the Mason City (Ia.) *Republican.* It was after his untimely death, while doing newspaper work in San Francisco, that the suffrage leader was brought into contact with the real condition of women workers in the congested urban centers. She resolved to dedicate her energies to making the working women of the United States respectable and respected, and their right to labor unquestioned. It was natural that when she entered a life of public ministry and reform as related to woman's advancement and social betterment the suffrage cause should

MRS. CARRIE CHAPMAN CATT

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claim her for its own. For the past ten years she has devoted her services almost entirely to this object; and for the past six years all her energies have been concentrated on the work of organization.

While Mrs. Catt by Miss Anthony's desire is the acting executive, Miss Susan B. Anthony, the octogenarian, as honorary president, is still devoting the ripe energies of the sunset years to the work of the National Woman's Suffrage Association. Her pen and voice are ever ready when needed. Her advice and counsel are invaluable to those who are so unselfishly and without remuneration devoting their energies to the suffrage movement.

The Daughters of the American Revolution is an organization which has now become pretty well known to the country because of the conspicuous service it has rendered to perpetuate the memory and the spirit of the men and women who achieved American independence. Mrs. Lillian M. Fairbanks, wife of Senator Charles Warren Fairbanks of Indiana, was reëlected president-general at the annual meeting in Washington, D. C., last February. She is a western woman, of fine physique, youthful in appearance and brimful of energy. She is one of the early members of the D. A. R. and has worked untiringly for its interests. It is said at the headquarters of the national society that her faithful services during the Spanish-American War were most valuable and efficient. Mrs. Fairbanks is active also in other circles of public endeavor. She is a prominent member of the National Federation of Women's Clubs, and is one of the promoters in the "Junior Republic" movement. Firmness, gentleness and tactfulness of a high order are the combination of characteristics which distinguish her as a leader.

MRS. LILLIAN M. FAIRBANKS

Mrs. Frederick Schoff is the capable new president of the Mothers' Congress, succeeding, on her retirement, Mrs. Alice McLellan Birney, who was the originator of the National Mothers' Congress and its alert president from the beginning. Mrs. Schoff is a Philadelphian by birth, education and residence, and was married at twenty. A devoted mother, with seven children of her own whom she has reared from kindergarten to Harvard College, Mrs. Schoff is a well-equipped and appropriate leader for an assembly of mothers. The Pennsylvania Congress of Mothers has claimed her as its leader from its inception. Mrs. Schoff has done a noteworthy work in her state in improving the condition of childhood. As chairman of a committee of the New Century Club of Philadelphia, she led the movement to obtain the Juvenile Court and probation system of Pennsylvania, which was passed by the legislature last year. Not content with this bit of good public service, ever since its passage she has been systematically working through the state to provide for the appointment and salaries of suitable probation officers. Furthermore, Mrs. Schoff has studied the condition of dependent and delinquent children in every state and, with a committee, has made a compilation of the laws of every state concerning dependent and delinquent children, believing that more adequate legislation on this subject is one of the greatest needs of the country. The new president of the National Mothers' Congress is above medium height, with a

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MRS. CYNTHIA WESTOVER ALDEN

pleasant countenance lighted by bright hazel eyes. Though alert and quick in motion, she is not easily flurried, possessing ease of manner, responsiveness, and geniality. She is an earnest speaker, telling in simple, effective, well-chosen language what she has to say on the subject so near her heart.

Mrs. Cynthia Westover Alden, the interesting woman who conceived the idea of the International Sunshine Society, is its president-general and the inspiring genius of the movement. The society with its simple creed of cheerfulness and kindly action is having a phenomenal growth. From its small beginning among the women reporters of a New York newspaper, it now numbers one hundred thousand or more in many lands.

Mrs. Alden's life-history is the record of an ambitious, indomitable and fearless spirit. The daughter of a western miner, and left motherless in infancy, she was brought up by her father among the miners of Colorado. The effect of this unique training has colored her writings, which have all the freshness of the mountain heights and of the western life. She was graduated at Boulder Normal School and taught school for a short time. Then with a young woman friend, she left the West for the East, intent on acquiring a musical education. Under considerable hardship, she achieved her design and followed a musical career with some success. Entertaining an ambition to become a linguist, she succeeded in learning German, French, Spanish and Italian, supporting herself meanwhile by work as an inspector in the New York Custom House. Later she became secretary in the street cleaning department, where her inventive genius was displayed in the creation of a new form of dump-cart now in use in many European cities. This invention won for her the only gold medal ever granted by the Parisian Society of Inventors to a woman. The young western woman next assumed the position of superintendent of a candy factory, which she soon left to take a place in the Metropolitan Museum of Natural History, cataloguing books, precious stones and minerals. Incidentally, she was busy on a guide-book to New York; and then naturally drifted into newspaper work. It was while in charge of the woman's page on the New York *Tribune* that she conceived the idea of the Sunshine Society, to which she now devotes her entire time and attention. In 1896 she married John Alden, a New York journalist. Since her marriage she has published

MRS. FREDERIC SCHOFF.

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MISS CLARA BARTON

"Bushy," an interesting story of life in Colorado. Helpful, tender-hearted, brilliant, versatile and breezy, Mrs. Alden has found the best vent for her generous energies in the work of the Sunshine Society.

Mrs. Lodusky Taylor, the present national president of the Woman's Relief Corps, is a native of LeSueur, Minnesota, where she has lived all her life, her parents being pioneers of the Northwest. From early womanhood she has been prominently identified with missionary, charitable and benevolent organizations. Her marriage to George W. Taylor, a well-to-do resident of the state, occurred in 1874. She has a son and two daughters, one of the latter being an adopted child. Mrs. Taylor entered the field of Relief Corps work in 1885, and has occupied a succession of executive offices. As local and state president she has shown the essential administrative qualities, combined with judgment, equipoise and fidelity. It was in 1894 that she first came into national prominence among Relief Corps workers, as a member of the National Executive Committee. The Woman's Relief Corps is declared to be the largest charitable organization in the world. It came into existence some years ago as an auxiliary to the Grand Army of the Republic. Its membership numbers 150,000 benevolent and patriotic women in every state of the Union whose avowed mission is not only "to aid and comfort the remnant of that brave band who bore arms in the Civil War," but also to care for the needy widows and orphans of soldiers of the United States army. Since its inauguration the corps has expended nearly $3,000,000 in relief work alone.

Probably the most interesting of women leaders in the United States to-day is Clara Barton of the Red Cross Society. She is, according to the records, just past the life span of three-score years and ten. But she is remarkably well preserved, considering that she has seen more distress, probably, than any other woman living. She is frail, nervous and delicate-looking, with a sensitive face and a slender figure. Her remarkable endurance is to be attributed to her steady, sustained method of working "without haste, without rest." She has cultivated the habit of deliberation, and never rushes into any work without complete grasp of the situation. There is strong suggestion for public-spirited women in her plan of concentrating her efforts, not frittering away her energies in manifold endeavors; and, above all, in eschewing worry and all the evils it brings

JULIA WARD HOWE

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in its train. Miss Barton is still able to direct the movements of the National American Red Cross Society, of which she has been the honored president for twenty years.

The eminent philanthropist and author, Mrs. Julia Ward Howe, though past her eightieth birthday, continues to be a leader in national organizations, two of which claim her as president: the Association for the Advancement of Women and the Women's Rest Tour Association, Boston. In her pleasant home on Beacon street, Boston, she receives committees and discusses plans. She frequently presides at public meetings. Her keen mind and active old age seem to prove the efficacy of women's public work in preserving physical health and mental force in declining years.

SHORTHAND AND BRAINS

BY

JOHN ROTHWELL SLATER

NOBODY knows how many shorthand writers there are in the United States. As far back as 1890, the Bureau of Education secured statistics showing that 57,375 pupils were receiving instruction in stenography during a single year. This figure did not represent the thousands of students who were learning the art from private teachers or by self-instruction. The classes in stenography in business colleges, high schools and other institutions are increasing year by year. Probably the total number of persons who have at least a smattering of one or another shorthand system exceeds half a million. Of persons under thirty-five years of age residing in cities, the proportion of stenographers is much larger than this.

Concerning stenography as a wage-earning business, much has been written, and there is little need for enlarging upon this phase of the subject. The market is at present greatly overstocked with ignorant, careless, irresponsible stenographers. Their worst fault is not that they can not write fast enough for the busy modern employer, or even that they can not always read their notes; but rather that they are lacking in the rudiments of a common-school education. They can not spell, they can not punctuate, they can not tell the difference between "affect" and "effect." Words which are written alike in shorthand are all the same to them, and they seem to choose the one which comes first into their shallow, little minds, without the slightest regard for the meaning of the sentence. If this is too severe an indictment of the gum-chewing girls who drift from one office to another, mangling business correspondence and inciting whispered profanity, when they ought to be washing dishes or selling buttons, let the employer answer in their defense.

Separated by a wide gulf from these incompetent parasites of the business world are the thousands of intelligent, expert amanuenses, both men and women, who hold permanent positions with wholesale houses, railroads and corporations, and professional men of all sorts. Not a few of these are really private secretaries, who know more of the details of their employer's business than he himself knows; who keep his business secrets, correct his slips of grammar and rhetoric without bothering him about them, and relieve him of many interruptions and annoyances of which he never even hears. These men and women command good salaries, though often not so large as their expert service deserves. And there is still another rank above these, the aristocracy of the stenographic profession—expert verbatim reporters who are permanent officers of the courts and legislative bodies, whose notes are legal evidence, whose earnings are high up in the thousands. They have the "nerve" of a locomotive engineer, and their charges would sometimes stagger a plumber or a consulting surgeon. But as they have to work under a higher nervous tension than almost any other class of men, and are liable to break down in middle life, they probably earn all they receive.

Quite apart from all these commercial and professional uses of stenography lies

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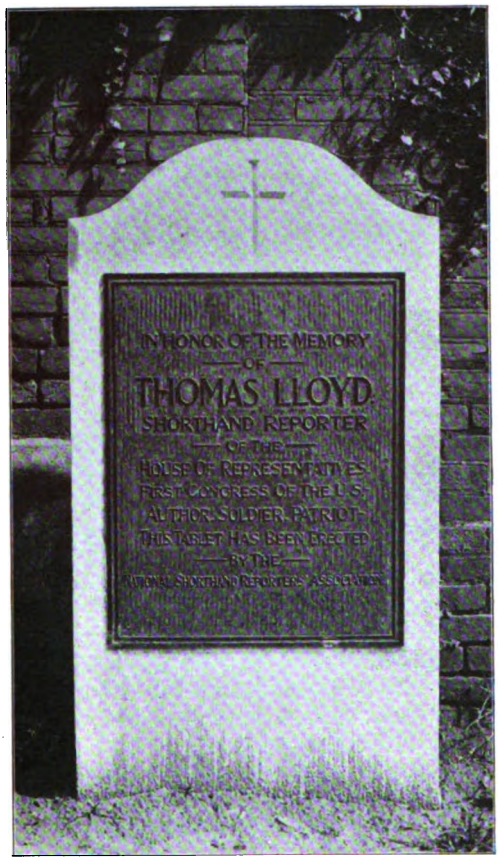

TABLET IN MEMORY OF THOMAS LLOYD
First Shorthand Congressional Reporter

the neglected subject of shorthand as a mental discipline. There are thousands of men now in business and professional life who learned in their youth to write shorthand, usually as a means of temporary self-support. The knowledge thus acquired has proved a stepping-stone to other employments. But what permanent element of the early training do they retain, what mental impress that is independent of occupation? How does shorthand help a man when he gets to be a lawyer, a preacher, a teacher or a business man?

In the first place, a popular notion that such persons use shorthand extensively for memoranda and so save a vast amount of time is somewhat exaggerated. The trouble with using stenographic notes for ordinary memoranda is that the brief outlines used do not stand out on a page as do the catch-words in longhand notes. One may be able to read his notes with perfect ease, and yet he can not by hastily scanning a number of pages find the key-word that indicates where the desired passage begins. Students in colleges and professional schools sometimes take stenographic notes of lectures with the idea that they will be much better equipped than their neighbors for quizzes and examinations, learning only by experience that a compact longhand abstract, supplemented by occasional verbatim quotations in shorthand, is far more serviceable. It is true that if the student has the time and industry to take verbatim notes and then transcribe from them a longhand abstract, he will have a far better report than the one who scribbles down sentences chosen at random from the speaker's discourse; but few have the patience for this.

The same difficulty applies to all uses of shorthand for memoranda which have to be consulted at intervals rather than read straight through at once and then laid aside. For practical purposes the literary worker or student who uses stenography in his library and lecture work must insert frequent headings and catch-words in longhand, thus acquiring a habit which is apt to prove ruinous to speed if he has occasion to take up verbatim reporting after an interval of disuse. Notwithstanding this drawback, it is of course true that the ability to write shorthand enables one to preserve memoranda which could have been secured in no other way. A very slight knowledge of the elementary principles is sufficient to enable one to write legible memoranda at least twice as fast as they could be written in longhand.

Far more important than this use of shorthand for memoranda is the cultivation of certain mental faculties derived from the study and practice of the art. It is to the scholar what telegraphy is to the railroad man. It makes him alert, quick of perception and capable of instant analysis. A man or woman who has gained a sufficient mastery of stenography to report with fair accuracy a speech uttered at a rate of 125 to 150 words a minute, must of necessity be in command of all the powers of the mind.

Psychologists may find an interesting field for investigation in the intellectual processes that are involved in rapid short-

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hand writing. There are at least five distinct mental operations carried on continuously during verbatim reporting. First there is the sensation of sound received by the ear; secondly there is the perception by the brain of the word uttered, practically simultaneous with the sensation in the case of a distinct speaker but often delayed a large fraction of a second when a preacher "drops his voice" or a witness in court has a foreign accent. In the third place the stenographer must analyze the consonantal structure of all the less common words in the sentence, all except the stock words and phrases which he writes by word-signs by a practically automatic habit. The proportion of words which he must consider how to write will vary with the nature of the discourse. In a scientific lecture on an unfamiliar subject it will be very large. In reporting colloquial testimony in court there will be no analysis at all, for the vocabulary will consist entirely of a few hundred familiar words which the stenographer writes without thinking. There it is a question of speed.

Fourth, these relatively uncommon words must be put on paper according to the principles of the system employed. This one operation involves many subordinate and infinitely swift efforts of recollection, association and decision. Not that the stenographer knows that he is engaged in so complex a process; it is now or never with him, and the instantaneous act of comparison and choice of stems and positions seems almost as automatic as the writing of arbitrary word-signs from memory.

Fifth, all these mental operations are carried on while the pen or pencil is from two or three words to an entire sentence behind the speaker—this, of course, in rapid speaking—thereby complicating the situation by compelling memory to keep pace with attention. In other words, while the scribe is writing the predicate of one sentence and analyzing an unfamiliar word in the subject of the next, he is at the same time giving his auditory attention to the predicate of the second sentence, then being uttered by the speaker. This is impossible to an untrained mind. The average educated person can not retain more than perhaps six or eight words of the exact phraseology of a speaker at one time. The competent stenographer can hold ten, fifteen, twenty words or even more in his memory, while at the same time taxing his mind by the act of writing the words that preceded. The difference is noticeable among college students in a class where the instructor is dictating for longhand writing. Most of the pupils will ask for frequent repetitions, and the actual length of phrase that seems to be easily grasped at a single effort is often not more than four words. Those with shorthand training, on the other hand, though writing longhand, remember entire sentences with ease. Their superior mental training is apparent not so much in improved memory as in improved attention.

BENN PITMAN

Whether the memory is also improved by stenographic experience appears to depend on the nature of the system employed. If it is a system in which abbreviations are largely arbitrary and in which the principle of analogy in writing words of a given class is not observed, the writer's memory has been taxed by a large mass of unrelated details assimilated by sheer effort of will. Such practice seldom improves the memory for the ordinary purposes of study. But a shorthand system which is logical, which makes much of association and the linking together of things that are related, can not

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fail to strengthen the power of recollection through association. It is the difference between language study on the old plan of memorizing grammatical rules with their lists of exceptions and the modern plan of learning a language by natural association of ideas and constant practice.

To the five distinct mental functions or operations involved in rapid shorthand writing that have been named might properly be added two more. The writing itself—the forming of the strokes and circles and hooks—is a constant strain upon the motor brain centers, as well as upon the muscles. The writer is fighting against some of the laws of mechanics, at least if he be a writer of any of the ordinary systems based on that of Isaac Pitman. He is trying to guide his fingers so that two straight strokes joining at an obtuse angle, or a single stroke ending in a hook, may not degenerate into curves; he is resisting the tendency of a point moving in a circle to run off at a tangent; he is joining words in phrases or writing them in close position in defiance of the law of rhythm which in very rapid writing tends to spread the words along the line at exactly equal distances. In some respects he is laboring under an unnecessary handicap, and if he were wise would modify his system to eliminate its defects. In other particulars the intentional disregard of mechanical principles really saves time. But in either case the stenographer has this additional tax upon his brain because of the motor activity inherent in his task.

And if in addition to all this a shorthand writer incidentally listens to the speaker with a view to grasping the general substance of his address—if, in other words, he is anything more than a mere machine—he has added to his peculiar mental burdens the ordinary effort of other hearers, which they probably think sufficient in itself. If the reporter does not listen with his reasoning faculties alert, but only with the selective attention required for the mechanical recording of the sounds uttered, he will get along well enough most of the time, but will make some bad blunders. And so far as mental culture is concerned, he will get none from the substance of what he writes, but only from the process of writing.

The mental discipline which may be derived from the practice of stenography is permanent. Speed may be lost, word-signs may slip away, but the power of concentrating the attention persists. Nor is the increased power of analysis confined to the analysis of spoken words. It is brought into play in all kinds of mental work. Possibly the truth may be that only persons with minds naturally analytic can become expert stenographers, and that the faculty is a cause rather than an effect of such proficiency. However that may be, the man who has a mind of that sort can select a topic at random, analyze it rapidly into its natural subdivisions, and make a speech or write an essay on it while other men would be groping around for an introduction. The value of this sort of discipline to a lawyer or preacher or writer is obvious. Mathematics is the only study that can be compared to a scientific system of shorthand for the development of analytical powers.

Another advantage of shorthand to literary workers is that it practically annihilates the barrier between thought and the written page. The drudgery of penmanship or the rattle of the typewriter must still be endured in preparing "copy," but in the preliminary drafts which every careful writer finds indispensable in working out his idea, shorthand notes written practically without effort take the place of ordinary writing. Writing out one's own thought is, of course, free from nearly all the difficulties involved in recording another's rapidly uttered words. An author who writes out an article in full in shorthand to get his mind to working in the desired channel, and then turns with a full store of words and phrases to the task of putting his thoughts into form for the press, often gains fluency, saves laborious revisions and economizes time. It is an excellent practice of a few extemporaneous preachers who happen to be stenographers to write their sermons out in full stenographically for the sake of securing a well-thought-out and well-phrased development. Then, instead of attempting either to read their notes in the pulpit or to memorize the discourse, they preach entirely without notes, but with a mind full of the details as well as the outline of the subject. The stenographic notes, filed

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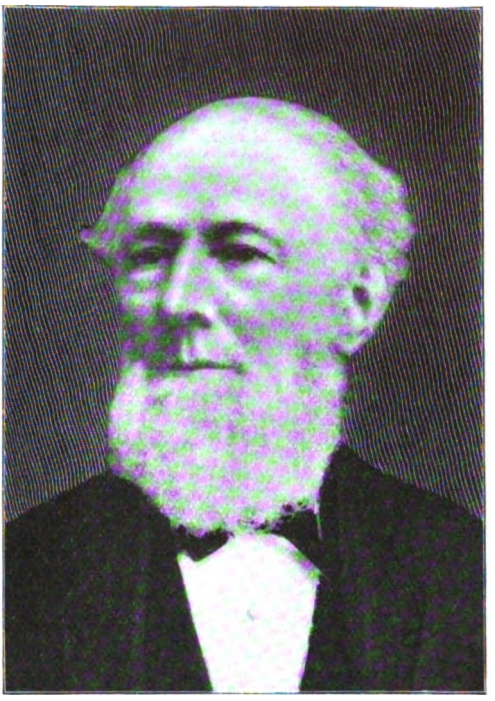
at home, preserve a more complete record than any outline or full abstract, with far less manual labor.

So great advantages from stenographic training are not without their corresponding dangers. Fast shorthand writing is a tremendous strain on any sensitive brain. Practiced until a man's nerves are all "on edge" and until a noticeable reaction follows, it may become a menace to health. The intense attention exercised by the reporter is much like that of the musical amateur listening to an unfamiliar orchestral composition. As the musician strains every nerve to grasp the manifold tonal complex and to perceive the relations of chords, the movement of the counterpoint, the balance of instruments, so the stenographer concentrates his powers upon the task of recording the eloquent words of a famous speaker or the voluble testimony of an Irish washerwoman, knowing full well that if his task is not done at that instant of time it can never be done. The effect of this tension upon nervous sensitiveness, upon the emotions, upon the will, is similar to the effect upon the musician. The true, predestinated verbatim reporter is a victim of the artistic temperament, and he can never get away from it. It may make an expert of him, or it may drive him to drink. For the peace of mind of anxious parents who may foresee in this paragraph grave warnings that involve the mental integrity of Jennie or Jim in the study of high-school shorthand, let it be said that the sort of shorthand Jennie and Jim will probably absorb will never keep them awake nights. The stenographic element in the work of an ordinary amanuensis is not unduly strenuous.

Shorthand should be taught in youth—early youth. Twelve years is a better age than fourteen for beginning; sixteen is late, twenty means that the art will never enter into one's mental fiber, though it may earn one plenty of bread and butter. As for the system, let the teachers fight that out among themselves. The various modifications of Sir Isaac Pitman's system are used by the great majority of all American stenographers; the three chief branches of the great Pitman family being the disciples of Benn Pitman, Andrew J. Graham and James E. Munson. The rivalry among these sects was once more



ISAAC PITMAN

bitter than it is now. There are good stenographers in all systems. Fundamentally different from all the Pitman styles are the recent systems which discard the Pitman alphabet with its straight lines and shaded strokes in favor of curves and loops similar to those of longhand writing. Some of them write the vowels by joined circles and ticks, vowels being almost entirely omitted in rapid writing by the other systems. It may be that these newer types will eventually drive out Pitman shorthand, even as Pitman by his phonetic principle drove out the many old English systems of arbitrary abbreviations. But there are few signs of such a revolution as yet.

Whatever system one adopts, one should learn it thoroughly and practice it consistently. A good teacher is essential, but no three months' course or six months' course will make an expert stenographer. There must be constant practice at writing, first from dictation and then from public speakers, with patient and conscientious reading of notes. The result in enduring mental development is worth all the labor it costs, even if the young reporter never earns a dollar at the trade.

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BY FRANCIS JOHN DYER

FOREBODINGS of disaster should San Francisco elect a mayor from the ranks of union labor have not been fulfilled. It is now nearly two years since Eugene E. Schmitz, orchestra leader and president of the Musicians' Union, was sworn in as mayor of San Francisco. Many conservative and well-meaning persons believed that event to foreshadow a local reign of anarchy; a period of two years, if not longer, during which the rabble would dominate public affairs, when strikes would be frequent and the whole community terrorized. These fearsome ones saw capital oppressed by unreasonable demands from labor, subject to unjust exactions from the local legislative power, robbed by excessive taxation, and in general so hampered, annoyed and restrained that it would, as far as possible, quit such an uncongenial place and seek other fields for the manifestations of its activity. It may be possible that had the radicals been given full control, the fears of even the most timid would have been realized. But the results, while not wholly satisfactory, have not justified those fears.

Still, Mayor Schmitz has not proved to be the ideal public servant. He has fallen too readily into the ways of the "practical" politician. His sudden rise from obscurity awakened his dominant ambition and the adulation of sycophantic aspirants for sinecures in the public service convinced him that he had been preordained a political Moses who should lead, not only the hosts of labor, but the great people through enthusiastic campaigns to the most glittering successes.

Early in his term of office Mayor Schmitz made a serious blunder. He ignored the three members of the Board of Supervisors (the governing body of the consolidated city and county), who were the only other successful candidates on the Labor ticket, and so gained their ill will. There had been a clamor against the cost of the city government, and Schmitz, in pursuance of his pledge to save money for permanent improvements from the annual income of nearly $6,000,000, vetoed items in the budget aggregating something under $200,000. The supervisors overrode his veto and accused him of bad faith, pointing out the fact that during the deliberations of the finance committee in making up the budget the mayor had sat with it and had not raised his voice in protest against a single item which he afterward vetoed. It was also remarked that the mayor had aimed his scheme of retrenchment only at those departments of the city government with which he was on bad terms. When the finance committee took up the consideration of the budget for the follow-

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E. E. SCHMITZ,
San Francisco's Labor Mayor.

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ing year, the mayor did not attend its meetings, but he again vetoed various items in the budget and the supervisors calmly passed them over his veto, although no doubt some of them might justly have been cut out.

The events which led up to the formation of a local Labor party must be known in order to make conditions clear. More than two years ago, when the city was enjoying a business revival (due largely to extension of trade in the Orient), the Teamsters' Union went out on strike. This action had not been taken without ample warning, and the interval had been improved by the employers on one side and the laboring men on the other to perfect preparations for a long struggle. The Employers' Association was pitted against the Teamsters' Union, backed in a sympathetic strike by the City Front Federation, the Porters' and Packers' Union, and other organizations. The employers engaged men wherever they could get them to drive teams at high wages. The strike sympathizers cut wagon traces, pulled drivers from their seats, lamed horses and killed some "scabs." The Employers' Association demanded police escorts for teamsters and got them. The unions protested, but in vain, and in time the employers, with police help, broke the strike. The terms of settlement were never made public, but the unions made little direct gain, if any at all. The real benefit came from a crystallization of sentiment and a consequent activity in organization.

People who sympathized with the wrongs of labor but who did not approve of strikes and strike violence, had often urged the laboring men to seek at the polls that redress which was given grudgingly or wholly denied to them by employers and lawmakers. This advice was taken after the big strike had been brought to an end without any results of value in the advancement of the cause. A political party was formed. A full local ticket was put up. A determined campaign, with very little money to back it, was carried on. Circumstances favored the cause of labor. Both the Republicans and Democrats had made unfortunate selections to head their tickets, which were far from satisfactory in other ways. A strong Republican faction went to the support of Schmitz, who with his fine physique, open countenance, ready smile and hearty handshake, proved to be a good campaigner. His labor friends concentrated their strength on the head of their ticket and the result was that the city awoke, on the morning after election, and rubbed its eyes in amazement to see that the labor man's candidate had badly beaten both the Republican and the Democratic nominees.

In the state campaign the following year the strength of labor was massed against Pardee (Republican) for governor, who suffered also from treachery in his own party. He was elected over Lane (Democrat) by about 2,800 plurality, while other Republican candidates were elected by forty thousand, fifty thousand and even larger pluralities, and this in spite of the fact that the Democrats and the Labor party fused on many of the candidates. With few exceptions the Republican machine was too strong in the state at large to be beaten by the combination. Locally there were two notable exceptions which emphasized the revolt from corporation domination in local affairs of the year before. These exceptions were the election of Wynn and Livernash to Congress.

For decades California has been in the grasp of the railroad. The Southern Pacific, so long master of the transportation field, has also been owner of state legislatures, city councils, boards of supervisors, the judiciary and anything else needful to enable it to shape legislation and influence the courts. This being the case, it will be understood that William F. Herrin, chief counsel and political manager for the Southern Pacific Company and cognate interests, is the real dictator of political affairs in this city and state. Allied with him has been Daniel M. Burns, who mines in Mexico as a business and manipulates politics in California to satisfy his ambition. Burns has failed once in an effort to be sent to the United States Senate, but he is not a man to give up while he has breath.

The needs of the railroad for friends at court are perpetual. Two years ago the Southern Pacific particularly wished to control the local municipal administration because it was about to ask for a new terminal franchise worth many mil-

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lions of dollars. It had been quietly at work for years buying up the property it needed for its rights of way, and it was ready to ask the city for privileges to construct its "Bay Shore Cut Off" along, over, across and under streets; to grant valuable terminal rights; to give outright or for moderate rental three blocks reserved for market places; to confirm its disputed rights to maintain and operate tracks through that thickly settled portion of the city known as the Mission; and to make other concessions without requiring any considerable recompense. Herrin and Burns, with the help of several petty bosses, put up a ticket composed chiefly of men whose first and only recommendation was their willingness to take orders. Fortunately most of these men were defeated. Perhaps it was because Herrin figured that the Union Labor party would draw its strength largely from the Democracy and that the Republican machine would keep the "boys" in line.

As a result of its miscalculations politically, the railroad had more difficulty in getting its franchise than it expected, but it got it at last, though it had to pledge itself to pay the city in substantial concessions for the benefit of the public. Still it got off cheaply enough, and whether it also made a private bargain with public officials is known only to it and them.

There was another important issue before the public: municipal ownership of public utilities. To submit this question to the people is made obligatory by the charter. The voters have just declined to sanction public ownership of the Geary street railway, but they voted to issue bonds in the sum of over $17,000,000 for the acquisition of school buildings, playgrounds, sewers, parks, a public library building and other desirable things.

CITY HALL, AND HALL OF RECORDS, SAN FRANCISCO

The city is virtually free from debt, and there is a strong disposition to enjoy the luxury of spending money which some one else will have to provide.

It may be noted that an offer by Mr. Andrew Carnegie to give $750,000 for a public library building (although solicited by the library trustees), was not accepted, because the labor unions objected to taking public gifts from a man who, they said, was responsible for the Homestead riots.

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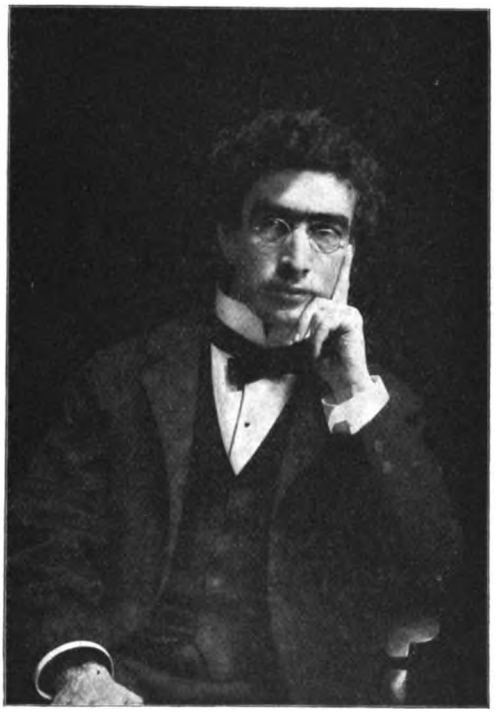
Time was when labor was organized scarcely at all in San Francisco. Now that condition of affairs is changed. This being a great commercial and industrial center, the field was inviting for the professional agitator, who during the past few years has been exceptionally active. Now almost every manual occupation has a "local" with a membership including practically all who earn their living in that line. The bricklayers and the chicken pickers, the drug clerks and the scavengers, the teamsters and the painters, the glass blowers and the hod carriers, the metal finishers and the dishwashers, the tanners and the bootblacks, the street sweepers and the hostlers, the electrical workers, longshoremen, elevator operators, members of the printing trades and a hundred other callings have their unions, whose delegates meet on a democratic footing at the Council of Labor. It is estimated that forty-five thousand men in this city belong to the unions—about one-ninth of the population. Of these about thirty thousand may be voters out of a total registered vote of about seventy-one thousand. In other words, nearly every other man is, theoretically, a supporter of the Schmitz administration. In practice, as shown by the vote in the last municipal campaign, only one-third of the laboring men vote for the labor ticket.



CONGRESSMAN E. J. LIVERNASH

San Francisco has a unique position in the state, being a city and county in one. It is governed by a mayor and a board of eighteen supervisors, all of whom are elected to serve for two years. There are the usual city and county officers, all elective. The mayor appoints a Board of Public Works, a Board of Health, a Park Commission, a Police Commission, a Board of Education, a Civil Service Commission and an Election Commission. The members of the various boards and commissions must be so chosen that no one political party can dominate any board, and the terms of office are arranged so that some members shall be appointed every year. Thus, while the mayor has great power, it is theoretically difficult for him to dominate entirely the policy of all or any of the boards, and so it has proved in practice.

Under the charter the mayor has authority to remove officials for cause, and it was the intention of Mayor Schmitz to make practically a clean sweep early in his administration. The Board of Public Works was sadly unpractical, its work being almost hopelessly involved in an unending quantity of official red tape. Its big appropriation went largely for salaries and wages. It was organized as a bureaucracy, with bureau chiefs, assistant chiefs, assistants to assistants, and assistants to them; superintendents, inspectors, timekeepers and a few "privates." The whole department was a circumlocution bureau. To get a report on a simple application for a side sewer or a crossing pavement sometimes took—and takes—several months. Moreover the head of the department being a retired colonel of engineers (since deceased), the military idea that the public had no right to know what the department was doing until after it had done it, if at all, obtained to the uttermost, and every attempt to raise the curtain of secrecy was resented. The Board of Health was busy disseminating reports of cases alleged to be bubonic plague. Either the cases were not plague, or else that famous and much feared filth dis-

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ease of the Orient is harmless here in the Occident, for the disease reported to be plague has never spread. In fact, the Board of Health has not reported a case since the inauguration of Mayor Schmitz, all alleged cases during that time having been discovered by a very young marine hospital doctor named White, since removed to another station, and his successor, Dr. A. H. Glennan, for some time in charge of this station for the Public Health and Marine Hospital Service, found no plague, but he urged the cleansing of Chinatown on general principles. Dr. Glennan was recalled to Washington to take command of the Public Health and Domestic Quarantine of the Marine Hospital Service in the United States. Before leaving he wrote to the Board of Health announcing his promotion and saying that "The harmonious state of affairs now existing between all the health authorities is a subject of congratulation and greatly to the commercial interests of San Francisco and the State of California." It is not probable that there ever was a true case of plague in California.

WILLIAM J. WYNN
Congressman from the Fifth District

There were other commissions which were not satisfactory, the greatest legitimate complaint being with the Civil Service Commission, which from the beginning had been a weak and unsatisfactory body, manipulated for the purpose of patronage. At the present rate of progression it will take several years for the holding of examinations for all employes coming under its jurisdiction. To be brief, it was not because the mayor did not see where a strong man with a broom could do herculean work in cleansing the city stables of Augean filth and corruption that he did not make removals by the dozen. He removed the justices' clerk, and then he ousted the Board of Health and the county clerk, in whose office scandals are continually coming to light. The courts, however, decided that the county clerk was a county officer and that the mayor could not remove him. In the case of the Board of Health a ready injunction issued out of the superior court has restrained the new members appointed by the mayor from taking their seats, and the slow movements of the judiciary make it reasonably certain that by the time the case is decided it will have ceased to interest the men against whom it was brought. Discouraged at these setbacks, the mayor abandoned his direct policy and fell back on the more devious course made famous by one Fabian.

Mayor Schmitz's administration has not been without mistakes, not even without some scandals. Some of the mayor's mistakes have been caused by inexperience; others were due to bad or self-interested advice. Such an one probably was the error of appointing James R. T. Mershon on the Board of Civil Service Commissioners, and securing his election as president of that board. Mershon was an oil stock manipulator, and he bore a very doubtful reputation. Being asked why he appointed Mershon, the mayor is said to have replied that he had put $4,000 into the municipal campaign. And yet it is probable that this was but an evasion, and that the blame for Mershon's appointment lay in another quarter. Mershon lived up to his reputation when in office. He resigned under fire, having been charged with giving out in advance the questions for the examination for promotions in the fire department, and with having altered the markings on an

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examination paper for a friend who sought a place in that department. The latter fault Mershon sought to justify. He was arrested for it on an indictment by the grand jury, and admitted to bail. Mayor Schmitz incurred criticism because he did not actively assist in prosecuting Mershon, but it is probable that here again he was only following the counsel of his political oracles, who hold that a man in politics must keep so busy getting friends and supporters out of jail that he will have no time to be getting any one in. Another of the mayor's appointees and one of his most active supporters, Fire Commissioner Parry, was investigated on a charge of petty graft, but the evidence was not strong enough to convince his friend, the mayor, who held the investigation, that there had been any wrongdoing.

Although the Labor party has made a great deal of noise and has compelled respect, its course is beset with reefs and hidden rocks. It was early rent by dissension. It lacks coherence. Nearly one-third of the voters of this city are foreign born, representing fifty different countries. Another third contains representatives of every state and territory, while twenty-three may be called true sons of Neptune, men without a country, being born at sea. And so there are many leaders of great and small degree, and almost every tongue. Among the big leaders is Rev. Peter C. Yorke, a Catholic priest, locally famous as a controversialist. He is a free lance and has a large following. Andrew Furuseth, a Finn, with the gauntness and hollow eyes of the ascetic, is the chief spirit in the City Front Federation. He opposes the mixing of the unions in politics and has thus far declined to accept any political office, which, perhaps, may be the explanation of his following among the toilers. Furuseth's thin, high-pitched voice, and his blunt, forceful language, never fail to hold the tense interest of his audiences. Brilliant and erratic, a journalist and lawyer, E. J. Livernash is popular as a leader. He was the opponent of Hon. Julius Kahn in the Fourth Congressional District, and although he had both the Union Labor and the Democratic support, he won by so small a plurality that his seat is contested. William J. Wynn, who was active in the labor cause, will represent the Fifth District in the next congress. Both the Democratic and Union Labor parties nominated him, largely on his record as a labor supervisor. Eugene F. Loud, one of Herrin's discoveries, was the incumbent, having beaten J. H. Henry (Democrat) by a vote of 23,443 to 17,365. Wynn reversed this, beating Loud by a vote of 22,712 to 16,577. Wynn is forty-three years old. He was educated in the public schools, became a machinist and is now studying law.

There are three factions in the Union Labor party. They are headed by Mayor Schmitz, Michael Casey and P. H. McCarthy. Casey, president of the Teamsters' Union, the Board of Health and the Board of Public Works, was business agent of the Teamsters' Union during the big strike. He was appointed to the Board of Public Works by Mayor Schmitz, whom he soon "threw down" and began planning for his own further advancement. He was elected president of the board, and by virtue of that office he became a member of the Board of Health. There was difficulty about reorganizing the health board and finally Casey accepted the office of president of that. In his dual role on both boards Casey is able to do a great deal for the party, and he is materially strengthening his position. He was reputed to have his eye on the shrievalty, but being signally defeated in a trial of strength with Schmitz at the primaries, his star waned and he is now merely one of the malcontents. P. H. McCarthy, a Democrat, is at the head of the third faction, which is also inimical to Schmitz. He is employed at one of the big hotels as carpenter, and is president of the Building Trades Council, which has about eighteen thousand members and is growing. McCarthy was appointed a member of the Civil Service Commission when that body came into being. His personal ambition has not yet been disclosed. Being forceful and determined, but diplomatic when occasion requires, McCarthy is regarded as a veritable Napoleon by many workingmen. It is rumored that he is aiding the Republican candidate for mayor.

As for the mayor himself, he is a native of this city, thirty-eight years old. His father was born in Germany and his

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mother in Ireland, but she was reared in Georgia from an infant, and was married in New York. The family came to California in '49. The father engaged in mining, but chiefly he devoted himself to music. He directed for such celebrities as Jenny Lind, whom the miners showered with gold coin and nuggets; for Patti, Madame Anna Bishop, Madame Bianchi, and many another famous cantatrice. Mayor Schmitz is a Catholic. He was educated in the public schools and married a lady of Irish extraction but San Francisco born. They have three children. At the time of his election the mayor was not only leader of a theater orchestra, but he was also secretary and manager of a gas engine factory, which position he resigned that he might devote all of his time to the duties of his new office. He has appointed one of his brothers, Herbert, a member of the Board of Public Works, and another brother was appointed superintendent of public buildings.

In his personal capacity Schmitz is a man who makes friends and keeps them. Schmitz as an official is a different person and is no less open to criticism than other officials who "do politics" in the hope of perpetuating themselves in positions of power and emolument.

While the mayor has been made to realize in various ways the limitations of his office, he still feels that he has accomplished a great deal. He points to the fact that not in ten years past has there been done so much work in extending school facilities as during the past year and a half. With a $1 limit to taxation for general maintenance the city can not expect much new street work, but something has been done in repaving and repairing. Some success has come to the mayor in settling labor troubles. Soon after his inauguration, 2,800 street car men went out on strike. The mayor insisted on peaceful conduct as a condition for his mediation. Every one of those 2,800 men was informally constituted a special policeman, and reports were made to the mayor every six hours for the ten days the strike lasted. The public was with the men and they won a signal victory. New differences which arose between the men and the $40,000,000 corporation owning most of the street railways are now being arbitrated. Another thing accomplished by the mayor was the institution of eight-hour watches in the police department. He has kept his pledge to give a conservative administration, and he has largely overcome the distrust of the commercial interests. He is almost constantly acting as arbitrator or mediator in labor disputes.

P. J. MC CARTHY
President of the Building Trades Council

Mayor Schmitz has found little disposition on the part of the commissioners who were given office by his predecessor to work in harmony with him or the men he has appointed, and he has also been hampered by the struggle for patronage; yet he feels that his administration has been a success. He considers his record good enough to stand on. He feels as others before him have felt, that two years is a short space of time in which to show what there is in him, and had he not been renominated he would have run independently to seek vindication at the polls.

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THE MAKING OF TO-MORROW

PROGRESS DURING THE YEAR 1903

Fine Arts in America

THE most comprehensive picture exhibitions of the year have been held, as has become usual, in Philadelphia, Pittsburg and Chicago. The New York exhibitions of the American Society of Artists and the National Academy were important, but art interests in New York are divided. The Philadelphia Academy exhibition in January included a remarkable number of works of the most distinguished American painters, especially in portraiture, Sargent, Whistler, Chase, Alexander, Miss Beaux and others.

The Chicago Art Institute exhibition now in progress is distinguished not only by the presence of works of Thayer, Sargent, Homer, Benson, Hassam and Weir, but by a special exhibition of Alexander's portraits, and by groups by Harrison, Ben Foster, Vail and Gay. The Pittsburg exhibition at Carnegie Institute opened November 5 and is chiefly made up of American pictures, but includes a collection of works of the International Society of Sculptors, Painters and Gravers, of which Mr. Whistler was president. This collection was made up in London, has recently been exhibited in Philadelphia and is to be shown in Chicago next March. The Copley Society exhibition of Sargent's portraits was very distinguished. No single work of painting has been so conspicuous as Sargent's decoration in the Boston Public Library, representing "The Dogma of the Redemption." E. H. Blashfield has painted a historical subject, "Washington Surrendering His Commission," for the decoration of the new Baltimore Courthouse. Among the most important sculptures erected have been the Sherman of St. Gaudens in New York, the equestrian Hooker (Boston) by French and Potter, the Alma Mater (Columbia University, New York) of D. C. French, and the Channing (Boston) by Herbert Adams. A full-size copy in bronze of Michael Angelo's colossal David has been set up in Delaware Park, Buffalo, the gift of Andrew Langdon. The death of Whistler is the most striking loss in the ranks of the artists. Dolph, Champney, Farrer, Wood and Donoghue also have died. Mr. Edward S. Robinson is appointed director of the Boston Museum, to succeed General C. G. Long, who died in August, 1902. The fine Albright Gallery in Buffalo approaches completion. The St. Louis Exposition is furnishing an open field for the sculptors, but not for the painters. Mr. Louis J. Millet, of Chicago, has been appointed Chief of Mural Decoration. The Metropolitan Museum, New York, has added a new wing, including a great reception hall.

In Chicago the most notable works of painting have been Mr. Frederic C. Bartlett's mural paintings in the Second Presbyterian Church and in the university buildings, and Mr. Oliver D. Grover's decorations of the Blackstone Library. At the Art Institute the Arts and Crafts exhibition was a very successful new departure; the new Scammon courses of lectures were opened in May by Mr. John La Farge upon "The So-called Barbizon Painters"; the noble Blackstone Hall of architectural casts was opened in October. The bronze equestrian statue of Washington by French, to be erected on Grand Boulevard, a replica of the work in Paris, has been received by the South Park Commissioners, but can not be erected until the pedestal is built, probably next spring. The Chicago artists have to mourn the death of Mrs. Virginia Reynolds, Peter Baumgras and Louis O. Juergensen. W. M. R. FRENCH.

Astronomy

ONE of the most noteworthy happenings in the progress of astronomical knowledge during the year 1903 concerns a certain one of the planets; another has to do with the far-distant nebulæ. Happily both are easily understood, and will be described briefly.

During the past summer there has been unwonted activity on Saturn's sur-

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face. On the morning of June 16, Professor E. E. Barnard, using the great Yerkes telescope, noticed a conspicuous whitish spot on the northern hemisphere of Saturn, at a distance from the equator which would, on the earth, correspond to a latitude of about thirty-five degrees. Eight days later he saw the spot again, and observed accurately the time when it crossed the planet's central meridian. Telegraphic announcement was immediately made to astronomers all over the world, for no such distinct appearance on Saturn had been noted since the year 1876, when Professor Asaph Hall, then of the United States Naval Observatory, observed a bright white spot in the equatorial belt of the planet. This spot remained visible for several weeks, and observations of it gave a period of ten hours and fourteen minutes for its rotation. Two days after Professor Barnard's announcement many English and European astronomers began to give attention to the new spot, and several of them observed two or more different spots, all of which were at nearly the same latitude as the one first announced. These were generally described as less sharply defined than Professor Barnard's spot. There is some difficulty in reconciling all the observations on account of the fact that it is not always possible to tell which spot a given observer watched on a given night.

However, Professor H. C. Wilson, of the Goodsell Observatory, Northfield, Minnesota, has collected and discussed forty observations already published, and deduces from them a period of ten hours and thirty-eight minutes. This period of rotation differs from the one previously determined from Professor Hall's spot, by twenty-four minutes. A discrepancy comparatively so large can not be satisfactorily explained by the supposition that the observations are inaccurate. It must be considered as a proof that different portions of Saturn rotate in different times.

The planet, therefore, definitely steps into line with Jupiter as a "semi-sun," both having this peculiarity of rotation in common with the sun. We may, therefore, regard Saturn as still possessing sufficient internal heat to keep the material of which it is composed gently stirring. That its activity is less marked than that of Jupiter is readily explained by the fact that it is somewhat smaller, and has, therefore, cooled more rapidly.

Professor J. M. Schaeberle, formerly of the Lick Observatory, now living at Ann Arbor, Michigan, has been occupied during the past two or three years in constructing and experimenting with a reflecting telescope of very short focal length, for use in astronomical photography. He has succeeded in constructing a parabolic reflector thirteen inches in aperture, and only twenty inches in focal length, which, with exposure-times of less than five minutes, takes photographs of stars which are so faint as to be beyond the reach of the great Lick telescope. It also shows all the stars on a published photograph which had an exposure-time of two hours, and was taken with the great Crossley mirror, three feet in diameter. The images of these faint stars are microscopic in size, being only .0002 of an inch in diameter, under favorable circumstances. The negatives, which are ordinarily less than one-twenty-fifth of a square inch in area, are studied under a compound microscope, using powers up to two hundred diameters.

The great advantage of Professor Schaeberle's new telescope is that with short exposure-times exceedingly faint objects can be photographed. He has used it already, with astonishing success, on the well-known Dumb-bell nebula, and on the Ring nebula in Lyra. The largest visual telescopes afford no evidence of the real structure of these interesting objects. But Professor Schaeberle's photographs show that both of these nebulæ are the central portions of great spiral structures. The Ring nebula is a two-branched spiral, which starts from the faint central star, the spires curving around in a clock-wise direction. Practically all the stars near the nebula lie upon some of the spiral convolutions. The apparent diameter of the entire spiral is about half that of the moon. Similarly the Dumb-bell nebula lies in the center of a great counter-clockwise spiral which has an apparent diameter as great as that of the moon. If it can be shown that planetary nebulæ are, in general, the centers of spiral formations, our knowledge of the method of stellar evolution will be much increased. If a reflector similar to Profes-

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sor Schaeberle's could be used continuously at an elevation of ten thousand feet or more in some locality where weather conditions were favorable, marked additions to our knowledge of the sidereal universe could be made.

HERBERT A. HOWE.

Charities and Correction

AFTER about twenty-five years of special agitation the Charity Organization movement has won a secure position for its essential principles of central registration, coöperation, individual treatment, personal service and community prevention. The forces of charity have formed common cause with the medical profession and boards of health in the war against tuberculosis; and everywhere success has crowned the effort, as indicated in the statistics of mortality. The reconstruction of Sing Sing prison, New York, is a typical illustration of the influence of sanitary science in practical philanthropy.

The stream of daily kindness, of individual beneficence, moves on quickly and "tells no tale of all the good it does," and the traditional agencies of relief, with their wiser methods, receive the evidences of public confidence in larger gifts and legacies. With the immense investments in public and private philanthropy the keen business sense of our people has awakened to consider the financial and administrative problems involved.

There is a rapidly growing demand for trained and intelligent agents of philanthropy. Simultaneously in London, Berlin, New York and Chicago beginnings have been made, by different methods, to offer both theoretical and practical instruction for philanthropic workers and officers of institutions. This academic movement is in close touch of sympathy with the efforts of institutional superintendents in the same direction. The profession of the charity worker has come to recognition and this means higher standards of service and reward.

The atmosphere has grown clearer around the problem of state supervision and control, and the main principles for settling the controversy now raging seem to be fairly well laid down. The functions of supervision and control are distinguished and the public mind is about ready to demand a more thorough and business-like management of state and local relief and correction.

The prevention of dependence by means of tenement-house regulation, public means of regulation, improved trade instruction, supply of wholesome food and milk, and similar methods, has been greatly advanced.

America has advanced but a little way in the direction of providing reliable and practical means of insurance against the crushing and pauperizing effects of industrial accident, sickness, helpless old age and prolonged invalidism of the ordinary laborer, and the miseries of impoverished widows with young children. Germany still leads the world in this field, and our department of labor has furnished information for all who are awake to the need.

The movement to establish juvenile courts is meeting with universal favor, it is so manifestly reasonable; but the supply and support of an adequate corps of trained probation officers are not yet provided for. This is the chief point of difficulty in the conditional release of persons before or after conviction. The failures of the system, though exceptional, are due to the imperfect service of guardianship. Only slowly do governments learn that the expenditures for helping a man to use his freedom are justified on financial grounds.

CHARLES R. HENDERSON.

Chemistry

THE discoveries in the realm of radio-activity form a prominent feature in the advance of chemistry during the past year. Although radio-activity was discovered as a property of uranium in 1896 and radium was discovered as long ago as 1898, the work of the last few months has so broadened our knowledge of the nature of the phenomenon of radio-activity that it has been possible to formulate a definite plausible theory regarding it.

It has now been pretty definitely determined that there are at least three elements, all of whose compounds are radio-active; namely, uranium, thorium and radium. The first two are of about equal activity, while the activity of the last is perhaps one million times as great. Radio-activity is manifested in a number

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of ways, such as photo-activity through opaque screens and ionization of the air, that is, rendering it a conductor of electricity. Compounds of radium glow in the dark with a faint phosphorescent light. The physiological effect is enormous; even a fraction of a grain of radium brought near the skin for a short time produces serious "burns." A specimen of radium compound maintains itself at a temperature 1½° C. above its surroundings, and evolves enough heat each hour to melt more than its own weight of ice.

As the activity of the above-mentioned elements did not diminish, so far as could be observed, in the course of several years, it became a most important problem to discover the source of the apparently inexhaustible supply of energy. The work of the past year has done much to elucidate this question.

It was found, three years ago, that uranium compounds yield, by chemical treatment, a minute quantity of a very active substance, called uranium X, and symbolized UX. UX loses its activity gradually and becomes inactive after a few weeks. Uranium freed from UX is nearly inactive at first, but becomes more and more active until after a few weeks it has entirely regained its original activity. A new quantity of UX, equal to that first extracted, can now be separated from the uranium. This process may be repeated indefinitely. Similar results were obtained with thorium. Radium did not yield a RaX, but gives, as does thorium, an extremely active gaseous substance. This so-called emanation could be condensed at the temperature of liquid air, It volatilized again when warmed. The emanations resemble UX in that they, too, gradually lose their activity. The rate of loss of activity has been found to be entirely independent of temperature and every physical or chemical condition.

In all these cases it seemed certain that the new substance, spontaneously formed, no longer contained the original active element. It appeared that so-called elementary forms of matter had broken down into something different. The rays which are the immediate cause of the photographic action, etc., have been shown to be material in nature. They consist of matter projected with about one-third the velocity of light. The rays are of two sorts; one apparently identical with the cathode rays, the other consisting of particles somewhat heavier than hydrogen atoms. If very recent reports prove true, a portion, if not all, of the second sort of rays consists of the gas helium.

To account for the energy of radio-active substances it is thought that their atoms are composed of particles moving (perhaps in orbits) with enormous velocities, and that the atoms are occasionally disintegrating, the resulting stream of particles forming the active rays. If this theory be true the energy of radio-active substances is due to the kinetic energy of the rapidly moving particles composing their atoms. The very great amount of energy associated with a small amount of substance is due to the almost inconceivably great velocity of the particles, probably sixty thousand miles per second. The case is analogous in some ways to that of the energy stored up in coal. In the latter case the energy is liberated as heat in the process of combustion. But in the case of radio-active substances no means has yet been discovered of rendering their store of energy instantly available, or even of accelerating their activity in the slightest degree. If the total energy of one grain of radium could be made available at one time it is calculated that it would be sufficient, if in the form of mechanical energy, to lift a twelve thousand ton battleship ten feet. The actual rate of activity is so slow that this amount of energy is distributed over a period of perhaps a thousand years.

A screen of zinc sulphid exposed to the radiation of a minute speck of radium and viewed with a lens magnifying twenty diameters (the whole constituting the spinthariscope) appears to be illuminated by a continuous shower of sparks, each spark probably representing the impact of a single flying particle. Though this beautiful phenomenon does not prove the truth of the proposed theory it is at least very convincing.

Radium is not known in the uncombined state. Pure radium chlorid has recently been made. It closely resembles barium chlorid in all of its properties excepting radio-activity. The chemical behavior and spectrum of radium compounds show radium to be a substance closely related to barium. Yet radium

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seems to decompose spontaneously. Is then radium an element? That is a question of definition of the term, element, We have heretofore considered the elements incapable of decomposition. Possibly they are not.

Each succeeding year the amount of chemical work accomplished becomes greater, but the mass of this work, while important to the chemist, is not suitable for popular review. As of common interest it may be mentioned that calcium, the metallic element of lime and of marble, can now, thanks to the development of electro-chemistry, be produced readily and cheaply. It may soon become an important chemical reagent. Vessels of blown quartz, melted in an electric furnace, have this year come upon the market. They closely resemble glass in appearance; but, unlike glass, may be plunged into water while red hot without cracking. They soften only at about 1800° C., a dazzling white heat. In such vessels most of the ordinary metals have been distilled, either at ordinary or reduced pressures. The rare metal, iridium, has been considered practically unworkable on account of its extreme infusibility. It, too, has yielded to electrical heating, and vessels constructed of it have been used for determining the density of gases at a temperature of 2000° C. H. N. McCoy.

Electrical Engineering.

IN the field of electrical engineering the achievements of the past year have been not so much in the line of startling inventions as in the development of already successful experiments. The electric current plays a most important part in all engineering activities and this to a constantly increasing extent. An example of this is seen in the increased number and size of the projects for utilizing the power of Niagara Falls. This year marks the practical completion of a new power-house on the American side, making a total of almost 150,000 horse-power now actually available. In addition there are in course of construction on the Canadian side three power plants designed to develop several hundred thousand horse-power more.

Large power units are the order of the day. In one of the Canadian plants mentioned above, the wheels will be of 12,500 horse-power capacity each. The tendency toward the use of these large units is due to their economy of space and their efficiency. The concentration of the power of many small stations into a few large ones necessitates the use of the largest engines and water wheels which can be built. The steam turbine meets the demand in this direction and the sudden popularity of this new machine is one of the wonders of the year. Already engines of this type as large as 7,500 horse-power are in process of construction. On account of the high rotative speeds employed in these engines they are very small for their output.

On interurban railway lines the progress of "electrolyzing" the systems has been rapid and this matter is uppermost in the minds of railway engineers. It is now possible to travel from city to city in electric cars in comfort and with great speed. Fifty miles per hour and upward can be easily maintained with safety to the passengers, whose comfort is carefully considered. All steam railroad companies operating short lines appreciate the inroads being made by electric traction upon their territory. Electric motors have made possible the attainment, during the past month, of a speed exceeding 125 miles per hour on the electric railway between Berlin and Zossen, Germany. It is probable that within a few weeks this will have been increased to 140 miles per hour, the maximum speed for which this car was designed. These experiments were begun two years ago, but the condition of the track caused a limitation of the speed to less than a hundred miles per hour. Recently the track has been rebuilt and the powerful motors of a maximum capacity of three thousand horse-power on a single car have accomplished the remarkable result mentioned. It should be remembered that these experiments are on a commercial scale with passengers on the car and they must have a stimulating effect upon interurban traffic.

In another direction the achievement in many ways most useful to all countries concerned was the completion of the Pacific cable, 9,600 land miles long, between San Francisco and Manila. This completed the world's circuit over which on July 4, 1903, Mr. Mackey sent a mes-

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sage around the world, consuming nine minutes in the journey.

During the year 1902 the engineering and scientific world was astounded by achievements in wireless telegraphy. These have led to the establishment of this mode of communication upon a commercial basis during 1903, and while the effect upon the cable business has not so far been serious, yet wireless telegraphy is finding many useful lines of application. A rival of wireless telegraphy in public interest was the Nernst incandescent lamp, with its brilliant and efficient glower. During the year just closing this lamp has taken its place as a competitor of the orthodox incandescent lamp and is already a factor of the lighting question in every new installation. Were it not for its great cost it would, on account of its economy of power, soon come into almost universal use.

This account of the year's achievements would be incomplete without brief mention of the work of Mr. Peter Cooper-Hewitt. During the course of his experiments with the mercury vapor lamp he has invented a number of simple and useful devices which are certain to have an influence upon the electrical engineering of the coming year. These include the static convertor, a device for changing alternating into direct current, and an alternating current circuit-breaker for opening such a circuit without spark. Mr. Cooper-Hewitt's future work will be anticipated with interest.

HENRY H. NORRIS.

International Politics

THE third year of the new century bids fair to close with all the nations of the world at peace. There have been indeed "rumors of wars," but no war; the paltry disturbances in some backward countries do not deserve the name. Indeed it is a third of a century since a hostile shot has been fired in Europe, Turkey and the Balkan lands being really Asiatic. Russians and Frenchmen and Germans and Italians and Britons during all those years have lived peaceably with one another. The year of grace 1903 finds even the "little wars" for the time ended. The great battle guns on land and sea are mute.

The settlement of international differences by arbitration has within the year made notable progress. The Alaskan boundary dispute has been finally put at rest by an international commission, and in a way which in the main is favorable to the United States. Few American students of the question doubted that a wholly impartial tribunal must hold adversely to the Canadian contention. It is natural that one who loves a lawsuit should hold the court in slight esteem. But the cardinal fact is that the question has been adjudicated and being now *res adjudicata* is at an end. The treaty of arbitration between France and Great Britain, on the general lines of that negotiated a few years since between the latter country and the United States, is another great achievement. Some have objected that the scope of the treaty is limited, and that there are vital subjects which are left outside its competence. But such objection is idle. The great fact that such an agreement exists, that many annoying questions may be settled judicially as a matter of course, this counts heavily for the amicable settlement of all questions. And a beginning being made between these great nations others must speedily adopt similar methods. France deserves well of the modern civilized world.

When we turn to the question of general international police the year has been less satisfactory. Of course this is a very difficult matter, and progress can not be rapid. Still it is becoming more and more plain that the right of small nations to independent existence is conditioned on orderly behavior—on keeping the *pax orbis terrarum*, which in our day takes the place of the old time *pax Romana*. Such states as Switzerland and the Netherlands are admirable examples of small nations which hold high place in the respect of the world. But Turkey can not keep order and administer justice, and the powers have not yet devised a satisfactory way of settling the disturbances of that distracted land. On this side the Atlantic there is also much cause for discontent. The island of Hayti is a disgrace, and our own republic must some day learn that with us lies the duty of abating a more pestilential nuisance in that island than that which so long plagued us in Cuba. There is nothing for

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which the people of the United States would more readily abandon the traditional policy of peace than the defense of the Monroe Doctrine. But the enforcement of that doctrine puts on us a corresponding responsibility. If Latin republics will not or can not follow the wise example of Mexico in orderly government, some day the time will come when they must no longer be allowed to endanger international justice and peace. The order and dignity of modern life among the nations must be maintained, and on the nations which have the power rests the responsibility for enforcement.

In eastern Asia alone there seem questions unsettled which may be dangerous. The interests of the powers in China seem irreconcilable, and only the wisest statesmanship can find a way out. That way apparently has not at this writing been found. The long advance of Russia across Asia has at last reached a point where there is necessary collision with other European powers. It is not now Turcomans or Afghans or Chinese who are in the way. If it is the case of conflict between an irresistible force and an immovable body we may learn something in the near future.

The year 1903 has not been *annus mirabilis,* like the year of victories renowned by the pen of Addison two centuries ago. But it has been a year not unfruitful in dramatic interest and in important results of international policies.

HARRY PRATT JUDSON.

Literature

ANY attempt to sum up, however briefly, the record of a calendar year in literary production, meets with a serious difficulty at the outset. For the publishing year begins (or ends) during the summer months, and the year that begins with the first of January cuts midway into a season of almost uninterrupted bookmaking. The following remarks, then, as far as they relate to the appearance of specific books, must be concerned with the latter half of last season's output, and with the beginnings of publishing enterprise for the season upon which we have now entered. The hasty survey, moreover, of any period as long as a whole year (which means many thousands of titles) gives one the feeling that he can not see the wood for the trees, or, to reverse the metaphor, that he can not see the separate trees for the extent of the wood and the thickness of the underbrush.

This question of underbrush is a pretty serious one even for the practiced literary woodsman, for who can foretell the height which some unpretentious growth may attain in the future, and who can know, on the other hand, how hollow at the core is some trunk that now rises imposingly skyward in popular estimation, and has all the appearance of sturdy permanence. Anything that one may say about the supposedly enduring or ephemeral qualities of books that have been produced within the twelvemonth must necessarily be a personal opinion of very slight value.

To get away from metaphor, I would say that there appears now and then some book that bears so manifest a seal of unusual powers, or even of genius, that to the reader of trained instincts its lasting character seems beyond question. Among books of this sort produced during the last quarter-century, I might name "John Inglesant," "Earthwork out of Tuscany," and "Marius the Epicurean." These books compelled instant recognition from the cultivated reader; they were classics from the very start, and their fame was assured. It is possible that some book of this sort has been produced during the past few months; all that I can say is that no such book has come within my reach. In a certain sense, I suppose it may be said that "the book of the year" in serious prose is Mr. Morley's life of Gladstone; in poetry, Mr. Kipling's "The Five Nations," and in fiction, Mrs. Ward's "Lady Rose's Daughter." But it is doubtful if any of the three will ever be reckoned a permanent addition to English literature. They have somewhat enhanced the reputations of their several authors, and that is about all there is to say of them. Speaking of English writings alone, there have been other works of scholarship at least comparable with Mr. Morley's biography, other novels nearly as good as that of Mrs. Ward, other poems better than the majority of those contained in Mr. Kipling's new volume. There would be no end to specification if I were to attempt to carry it

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further; perhaps it is best to stop with mention of the three books that have loomed largest in the foreground of intelligent public attention.

Turning from English books for a momentary glance at what has been produced abroad, the transition may be made easy by saying a word for M. Ostrogorski's important work on "Democracy and the Organization of Political Parties." As a philosophical study of democracy, chiefly under American conditions, this treatise probably deserves a place beside the similar works of Tocqueville and Mr. Bryce, and is one of the most solid of recent contributions to political science. In the field of creative literature, the great continental writers have been silent. We have had nothing from Count Tolstoi or Dr. Ibsen, and the last of Herr Bjornson's dramas, "At Storhove," belongs to the close of last year. Among writers whose names are somewhat less resounding, there is Herr Hauptmann, whose "Der Arme Heinrich" is now about a year old, and Mr. Maeterlinck, whose "Joyzelle" belongs, I believe, to this year. His still earlier "Monna Vanna" may claim to be mentioned here, since it is during the present year that it has made its appearance in English dress. And a similar claim may be made for M. Zola's posthumous "Truth," which is a work of great power, however defective in artistic quality.

The necrology of the year includes no names of very high rank in literature proper, although the domain in which literature and scholarship become merged has lost two of its rulers by the divine right of the intellect during the last few weeks—the great philosophical historian and novelist, William Edward Hartpole Lecky, and the still greater scholar, Theodor Mommsen, the prodigous achievement of whose eighty-six years has hardly been matched by any of his contemporaries.

WILLIAM MORTON PAYNE.

Control of Natural Monopolies

THOUGH the past year has not been characterized by any great positive achievement in the national or municipal control of natural monopolies, it has witnessed a growth of public sentiment which is the necessary preparation for positive achievement. Such a growth is, of course, difficult to measure by yearly periods. There seems every reason to believe, however, that the past year has contributed its share to that great change of public opinion and public policy upon this question which has so evidently taken place within a decade.

The increasing effectiveness of national control of railroads through the Interstate Commerce Commission has resulted, on the one hand, in a feeling in favor of increasing the powers of that commission, especially in the direction of prompt and efficient enforcement of its rulings, and, on the other hand, in a growth of public opinion in favor of national ownership. The power of control over certain natural monopolies which has been given to the Department of Commerce and Labor is also worthy of note, while the federal government has assumed new and direct responsibilities in this line through its undertakings in the way of irrigation works and in the matter of the Panama Canal.

There are even stronger evidences of the growth of public sentiment in favor of municipal control of natural monopolies, and it is a significant fact that in the State of Massachusetts, where the board control of public utilities has received its highest development, the sentiment is strongest in favor of public ownership.

In the United States as a whole at the close of 1902 fifty-one per cent of the 1,475 water supply systems reported for cities of three thousand inhabitants and over were owned by municipalities. The proportion of gas and electric lighting plants publicly owned is not nearly so high, but it is increasing, especially in the case of electric lighting plants.

Public ownership is rapidly becoming the most important issue in every municipal campaign, and the mere fact that the question of the ownership of waterworks and lighting plants has in so many instances been superseded by the question of the ownership of street railways shows a distinct advance. In San Francisco the recent vote upon the question of acquiring the Geary line of street railways stood 14,481 for and 10,745 against, and the proposition was defeated, therefore, merely by the legal necessity for a two-thirds vote.

In Denver the liberal element succeeded

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in electing a nonpartisan charter convention which last September submitted to the people probably the most advanced charter, so far as municipal control of natural monopolies is concerned, that has ever been presented to an American city. The charter was defeated on the face of the returns, but its friends assert that the result was brought about by a combination of misrepresentation and ballot-box fraud. However that may be, it is to be noted that the most essential provisions in regard to franchises and municipal ownership are contained in the amendment to the state constitution which gave the city of Denver the right to home rule, and these provisions must, under that amendment, be incorporated in any charter which is submitted.

Other instances might be cited, especially the active campaign for municipal ownership in Chicago which has followed the decisive vote upon the question taken in the spring of 1902. The Cleveland campaign is also in many ways a noteworthy one. New York, meanwhile, is not silent. The Kings County grand jury, in making a presentment on traction facilities in Brooklyn, distinctly states that "the only solution of this vexed problem of metropolitan transportation is municipal ownership and operation of the means of public travel." The great public interest shown last winter in the National Convention upon Municipal Operation and Public Franchises held in New York is another indication of the growth of public interest in the question.

The fact that progress is slow along these lines is not discouraging, but is rather a hopeful sign that whatever advances have been made will prove permanent and substantial. The outlook is certainly brightened by many indications of a wholesome trend of public thought and sentiment, and these promise to result in active measures in the near future.

RICHARD T. ELY.

Physics

AMONG the achievements which will make the year 1903 memorable in the history of physics two stand out with especial prominence. They are:

1. The successful accomplishment, by Marconi, of the feat which few scientists had regarded as a possibility, namely, the transmission of electric messages across the Atlantic without the aid of wires. The development of the process has been rapid.

2. The partial solution of the mystery of radio-activity. It will be remembered that as long ago as 1896 the discovery was made that the two rare metals, uranium and thorium, continuously emit some sort of rays which, like X-rays, are capable of penetrating opaque objects and of affecting photographic plates. By 1900 it had been proved that these rays consist of three distinct types, the so-called alpha, beta and gamma rays, which differ from one another chiefly in penetrating power, the alpha rays being unable to pass through a thickness of more than .0005 cm. of aluminum, while the beta and gamma rays can be detected, the former through .05 cm. and the latter through 8 cm. of aluminum. Radium had also been discovered by the Curies and shown to possess the property of emitting rays of the same three types as those emitted by uranium and thorium, but of an intensity more than a million times as great. Further, the beta rays from all of the radio-active substances, uranium, thorium and radium, had been shown to consist of streams of negatively charged particles which weigh but one two-thousandth as much as the hydrogen atom, but move with a velocity almost as great as that of light.

Within the last year Rutherford and Soddy, of McGill University, have conclusively shown that the alpha rays, hitherto of wholly unknown nature, also consist of streams of projected particles, and that these particles, while having nearly the same velocity as the beta particles, namely, about twenty thousand miles per second, carry positive, instead of negative, charges of electricity and possess a mass twice as great as that of the hydrogen atom, or four thousand times that of the particles of the beta rays.

What causes these particles to be projected with such prodigious velocities from the atoms of radio-active substances is not definitely known, but the process is probably an accompaniment of some subatomic change in which the atom of the radio-active substance is being very slowly transmuted into some new form of matter. Ramsey has very recently brought forward strong experimental evidence that

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helium is one of the ultimate products of this transmutation.

The total amount of energy given off by one gram of radium has recently been measured by the Curies and found to be equivalent to one hundred gram-calories per hour. This heat is probably a result of the radio-active change, and if so we must conclude that all radio-active substances are continually wasting away, though no loss of weight has as yet been detected by the balance.

3. Most of the new work which has been done in "light" has centered about, and been called forth by, Professor Michelson's invention a few years ago of the "echelon spectroscope." With a modified echelon Professor Lummer, in Germany, has obtained photographs which seem to show that the single green mercury line consists of as many as twenty separate lines, a fact which testifies, as do the discoveries in radio-activity, to the complexity of the atom.

4. The year has also seen the upper limits of accurately measured temperature pushed up from 1,400° C. to 2,400° C. through the labors of Holborn and Kurlbaum at the Reichsanstalt at Berlin.

5. Under the direction of J. J. Thomson, at Cambridge, England, important work has been done in the measurement of the "atom of electricity," the quantity attached to the hydrogen atom in electrolysis. This measurement enables us to calculate with considerable certainty the number of molecules in a cubic centimeter of air or any other gas. This number is 18,000,000,000,000,000,000. The absolute weight of the atoms of all substances are, therefore, now known with some degree of certainty.

6. Pendor, of Johns Hopkins, and Cremien, of Paris, have together finally settled in the affirmative the long-controverted question as to whether a moving charge of static electricity is equivalent to an electric current.

7. Lebedew, in Russia, and Nichols and Hull, in this country, have proved that light waves exert a pressure against all surfaces upon which they fall.

8. Finally, Blondlot, in France, has discovered a new form of radiation, the presence of which can be detected only by its effect upon a small electric spark. These rays have been named N rays. They possess most of the properties of light waves. R. A. MILLIKAN.

Physiology

SEVERAL hundreds of excellent and laborious researches in physiology have been published in the past year, all of them contributing something to the advancement of the science, either new facts, or new relations of facts already established, or new outlooks for the future. No brief note can give an adequate estimate of the net result of such a year's work. All that can be done is to mention a few results, which, either on account of their novelty or on account of their fundamental importance, may be of some interest even to the general reader. Among these must be placed the discovery, by Bayliss and Starling, that the contact of dilute acid with the mucous membrane of the upper part of the small intestine causes the production in the cells which line it of a substance termed secretin, which, absorbed into the blood, is carried to the pancreas and the liver, and excites both glands, but especially the former, to secretion. It has been known for a considerable time that the acid contents of the stomach on entering the intestine caused an increase in the flow of bile and pancreatic juice, but nobody had suspected that this eminently adaptive mechanism was set in play by a specific chemical substance instead of by the nervous system. This discovery must be considered one of the surprises of physiology, and it opens up problems of the widest scope in connection with secretion.

It has long been a puzzle how the stomach and intestines, bathed as they are with powerful digestive juices, are able to resist the attack of these liquids which so readily erode them after death and act with such energy upon the food substances contained in their cavities. Weinland's experiments have supplied the key to the solution of this riddle. Starting with the happy idea that if a chemical or physical explanation of the phenomenon was to be found, it would most easily be reached in the case of such intestinal parasites as the tapeworm, whose very existence depends upon their ability to resist digestion, he was able to isolate from these animals specific substances which he speaks

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of as antiferments, that is, bodies which prevent the action of the ferments of the digestive secretions. In a subsequent research he obtained similar bodies from the cells of the mucous membrane of the stomach and intestine of the higher animals. While the existence of these intracellular antiferments affords a satisfactory explanation of the immunity enjoyed by certain cells against the attack of extracellular ferments in contact with them, the rôle of the intracellular ferments, that is, of ferments which cause changes in the protoplasm of the cell or in food substances taken up by the protoplasm, or in both, has been elucidated by numerous observations during the last year; and it is now abundantly clear that these ferments are of high importance in many of the peculiar chemical changes that occur in the body. The oxidizing ferments, or oxidoses, have attracted especial attention.

The application of the new science of physical chemistry to physiology has made rapid strides, for instance, in the investigation, by Loeb and others, of the relation between the electrical properties of numerous substances and their action on living cells.

A beginning has been made in the study of the physiological effects of that latest birth of chemical science, the marvelous metal, radium. It is said that the growth of animals can be influenced by exposure to the inconceivably minute particles given off by this substance, being hindered or favored according to the conditions of the experiment. According to Danysz, even when a minute portion of radium is enclosed in a glass tube the "rays" cause wounds in the skin which appear eight to twenty days after exposure.

Dixon and Brodie, in a detailed study of the nervous mechanism which controls the width of the bronchial tubes, have thrown light on the pathology of asthma. They have found by experiments on animals that of all the afferent nerves in the body, the most effective in causing narrowing of those tubes, with consequent hindrance to the passage of air into the lungs, are those connected with a small patch of the mucous membrane of the nose. This result acquires great interest in connection with the statement recently made by Francis, that most cases of spasmodic asthma in man can be permanently cured by cauterizing a corresponding area of the nasal mucous membrane.

G. N. Stewart.

Religion

THE religious progress of the year has been marked by at least three matters of importance. First: The formation of the Religious Education Association in Chicago, February 10-12. The convention which inaugurated this movement was called by the American Institute of Sacred Literature. The association is already showing itself possessed of vigorous life. A financial secretary, W. N. Stearns, Ph.D., and a general secretary, Ira Landrith, D.D., have already been appointed, and its second annual convention will be held in Philadelphia in March, 1904. While the movement includes men of all shades of theological belief, it represents the growing determination to make the Sunday school and religious education generally more effective.

Second: The tendency toward ecclesiastical unity. In Canada the Methodists and Presbyterians have considered some form of coöperation. In Japan churches are planning to work together with much efficiency. In New South Wales there is a tendency also toward union on the part of Nonconformists. In the United States may be mentioned the movement of the Cumberland Presbyterians toward union with the general body of Presbyterians, and a carefully planned program of union between the Congregationalists, Methodist Protestant and the United Brethren Churches. The Evangelical Lutherans have undertaken a plan of uniting their various synods both in Canada and the United States. In England the attempt on the part of the government to enforce the new Education Bill, which compels Nonconformists to pay a rate for schools in which the religious instruction is probably to be given by the representatives of the established church, has resulted in a new feeling of solidarity among the Nonconformists.

Third: A concerted interest in evangelization, especially among the Presbyterians. This indicates not only a new interest in aggressive Christianity but a tendency toward putting religion upon

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an experimental rather than a credal basis. It can hardly be said, however, that the evangelistic movement has as yet achieved any considerable results.

Matters of less general interest have been the modification of certain clauses in the Westminster Confession by the Presbyterian General Assembly; the continued refusal on the part of many theological leaders of Germany to yield to the evidence presented by the critics, seen especially in the excitement over Professor Delitzsch's "Babel and Bible"; the summer schools of theology, notably those of Harvard University and the Divinity School of the University of Chicago, and the Winona Assembly; the agitation in the Protestant Episcopal Church for the establishment of an American archbishop, and for the change of the church's name to the American Church.

SHAILER MATHEWS

Zoology

HE who, in the present condition of the biological sciences, would select the most notable achievements of the year must not be overconfident of universal approval, and yet I think I am not far wrong in thinking that these achievements lie in the study of heredity.

About forty years ago Gregor Mendel, an Austrian monk, experimenting in the garden of his cloister at Brunn, discovered certain laws of heredity. These remained unnoticed until rediscovered independently in 1900 by three botanists, de Vries, Correns and Tschermak. They were brought to the attention of zoologists in 1902 by the English investigator Bateson, who first pointed out their great importance in a book entitled "Mendel's Principles of Heredity." These principles can not be briefly summarized but may be found fully elucidated in Bateson's book and in an article by Professor Castle in *Science* for September 25, 1903. Bateson says of these principles: "Soon every science that deals with animals and plants will be teeming with discovery, made possible by Mendel's work. The breeder, whether of plants or of animals, no longer trudging in the old paths of tradition, will be second only to the chemist in resource and foresight. Each conception of life in which heredity bears a part —and which of them is exempt?—must change before the coming rush of facts."

The first notable achievement of the past year in zoology seems to me to be that of Professor Castle, who, in fulfilment of Bateson's prophecy, has shown that all the complicated phenomena of sex-inheritance may be explained on Mendelian principles.

A second notable achievement is the accumulation of evidence as to the material basis of heredity. The cells of all animals (and plants) contain in the nucleus a definite number of thread-like, stainable bodies, the chromosomes. These are present also in the germ-cells, and by the division of the united germ-cells and the simultaneous longitudinal splitting of the chromosomes the products of the latter are distributed equally to every cell of the resulting animal. Many zoologists have thought that through the chromosomes the qualities of the parents are transmitted to the offspring. It has been suggested that these chromosomes might be of different qualities (Weismann) and that each or some part of each might determine the character of some organ or part of the adult body. In 1902 the German investigator, Professor Boveri of the University of Würszburg, showed that this was probably the case. In the eggs of the sea-urchin he caused by double fertilization an unequal distribution of the chromosomes to the cells of the resulting larva. He found now that regions of the larva whose cells contained different numbers of chromosomes differed markedly from each other. One region might lack skeleton or pigment and so the right and left sides might be notably different. During the present year Mr. Sutton, of Columbia University, has shown that the chromosomes in the cells of the lubber grasshopper are arranged in eleven pairs of different sizes; that one element of each pair is derived from the male parent and one from the female parent, and that these chromosomes are not transitory but permanent structures. This, when added to the evidence already brought forward by Boveri, well-nigh proves that qualitatively different chromosomes, derived equally from the two parents, determine the characteristics of the offspring, and must be regarded as a notable achievement of the year.

JACOB REIGHARD.

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MEN OF THE MONTH

William H. Taft

Judge, Colonial Governor and War Secretary

"WHAT a difference between now and then," said a well-known correspondent at Manila, shortly after the arrival of the Taft Commission there in 1900, comparing the military régime with civilian administration, then only in its beginnings. "Any one who couldn't get along with this man Taft doesn't belong in any calling, much less ours. He takes us cordially into his confidence and tells us all about things, not hesitating to tell us things he has to ask us to reserve. He knows how newspaper men of standing are treated in the United States, and doesn't think, because we are off here thousands of miles from home, he can play czar over us. Besides, he is a great big, whole-souled man, one of the sort about whom you say, 'He is a good fellow,' and he can take you by the hand and treat you on terms of equality."

The correspondent's phrase, "great big, whole-souled man" well expresses the first conception that every one forms of Governor Taft on meeting him. He is that first of all, and never ceases to be that. But a very little further acquaintance with him serves to reveal that here is also a man of tremendous force, as well as great diplomacy, tact and good humor. Those who have been in close daily contact with Governor Taft in the Philippines are usually compelled to acknowledge that, knowing the wonderful diplomacy and *bonhomerie* of the man as they do, they yet find something mysterious in the hold he has upon the Filipinos of all classes and factions. From the first, he has had to speak to them through an interpreter; he uses the Spanish language well enough to get along in a social way, but would not think of attempting to discuss important matters with a Filipino without an intermediary. And yet, before he had been in Manila six months, he was the idol of a large portion of its prominent inhabitants, was at least deeply respected by all and was able to get the truth, even through an interpreter, from some few restless agitators, who, seemingly on general principles, always told anything but the truth to everybody else with whom they talked.

Judge Taft has been so thoroughly identified with the policy of "the Philippines for the Filipino" that he has been the target for half-concealed attacks by the American, Spanish and other would-be "exploiters" of the islands. When provincial governments were to be established in the pacified districts in 1901, under the new municipal and provincial codes, the future civil governor was not satisfied with putting these into execution from a distance, but the Commission made extensive trips, first through Luzon and then through the central and southern islands. Never before in the history of the archipelago did any ruler or rulers attempt to see the islands one-half as thoroughly as the American Civil Commission saw them in February, March, April, June, August and September of 1901; and no Spanish governor-general ever knew the country under his control as Governor Taft now knows it, even though, like Blanco, he had previously campaigned or held subordinate positions in it.

The social features of these provincial visits were used by the Commission to further good feeling in the islands. Everywhere were banquets and balls; and, aside from the set speeches, it was no small thing that these representatives of American sovereignty broke bread with the Filipinos, danced with their wives and daughters, and, in general, met them on terms of social equality. Judge Taft himself was at particular pains to learn the rather difficult figures of the Spanish quadrille that is danced everywhere in the islands, and he danced it at every ball, no matter how fatiguing had been the day's work or how stuffy was the night. For a man who, on his massive six-foot frame, has considerably more than two hundred pounds, this small matter in itself was, after all, nothing small. Nor did the Filipinos think so.

Optimism is a distinguishing characteristic of Judge Taft. When a correspond-

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ent remarked to him in 1900 that his confidence in the eventual outcome was so different from the pessimisms of the military commanders, he replied:

"Of course I'm an optimist! If I were not I should have no business here."

And he is said to have told a certain major-general of prominence in 1901:

"General, if I felt as pessimistic as you do about the situation, I should ask to be sent home at once; I would not remain under the conditions under which you must remain, feeling as you do."

It has for some time been an open secret that, in naming him for the Philippine situation, President McKinley held out to Judge Taft a return to the bench, to that of the United States Supreme Court, at the earliest opportunity. A place on that court is, he has often proclaimed, his highest ambition. And yet, when President Roosevelt offered him the vacancy existing in June, 1902, he refused and returned to what he believed to be his duty in the Philippines, in the face of physicians' warnings. And again last January, when another vacancy on the Supreme Court offered, he asked the President to excuse him, in the face of the clamor that went up from all classes and factions of the people of the Philippines: "We want Taft."

Now he is coming home to a position which, while technically superior to the post he has been holding, is in fact less important. Under present conditions, the governorship of the Philippines ranks next in prominence and importance to that of President of the United States. In salary, too, it is the second post under our government, as it pays $20,500—$15,500 as governor and $5,000 as member of the Commission. There can be no doubt that Governor Taft in taking the post of Secretary of War obeys, first, important considerations of health, and, second, the feeling that he can still, as Secretary of War, exercise a very direct control over the affairs of the Philippine government. Doubtless, every effort will be made to make the Filipinos feel that his is still the guiding hand in their affairs. Whether they will feel such confidence in this vicarious government of Taft as they do when they have the man himself where they can approach him in person, is one of the uncertain elements of the situation.

Lord Chief-Justice Alverstone

Whose Vote Decided the Alaskan Boundary Question in Favor of the United States

WHILE Canadians are declaring bitterly that their interests have been sacrificed on the altar of British and American friendship, Americans are admiring what they consider the judicial impartiality with which Lord Chief-Justice Alverstone recognized their claims and decided against his own government. He has expressed his own absolute conviction as to the justice of the American claims, and there is no reason to doubt his sincerity.

LORD CHIEF JUSTICE ALVERSTONE

Sir Richard Everard Webster, made first Baron of Alverstone in 1900, has for many years been acknowledged as a great friend of America and Americans. Twice before he became Lord Chief-Justice in 1900, he represented Great Britain in international arbitrations, in which he met leading American counsel and judges, first at the Behring Sea Arbitration and afterward at the Venezuela Arbitration. Many members of the American bar have enjoyed his hospitality. He was on terms of intimate friendship with the represen-

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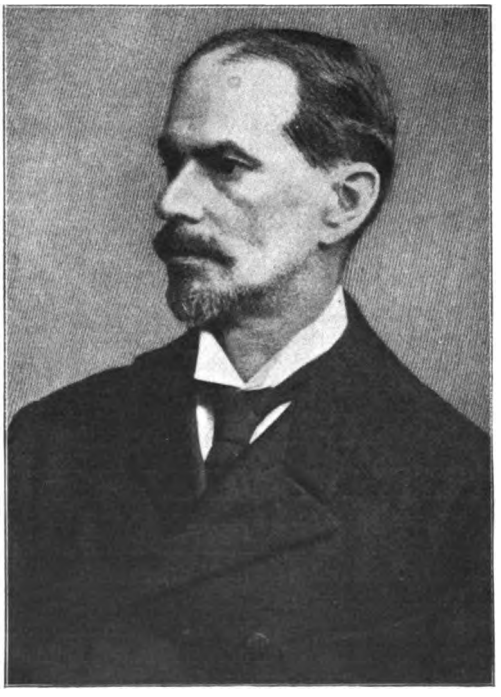
tatives of the United States at the Court of St. James, particularly with Mr. Bayard. Almost his first public appearance after he became Master of the Rolls, in 1890, was at a banquet given by the Bench and Bar of England to the Bench and Bar of the United States. In a speech on that occasion he paid the legal profession in America the following tribute:

It has been my privilege to be closely associated with many distinguished members of the American Bar; probably except the Lord Chief-Justice (Lord Russell of Killowen), whose absence we so much deplore to-night, there is no one who has had more intimate connection with distinguished barristers from the United States. And I desire to bear my testimony to the fact how thoroughly they appreciate not only the principles of law we respect, but the traditions of the great profession in which we have been brought up.

One of Lord Alverstone's earliest cases was an action against the London and Northwestern Railway Company, one of the largest and most progressive railway lines in England. The law department of the company was so impressed by the skill he showed and the manner in which he worked up his law and his facts that he was soon afterward given a retainer for the company. Thenceforward he represented that railway in all its legal affairs until, through accepting the post of Attorney-General, in 1885, he was obliged to give up his private practice. In 1878, after he had been only ten years at the bar, he was appointed Postman of the Court of Exchequer and he became Queen's Counsel in the same year. He served as Attorney-General during three periods, separated by two terms as a Member of Parliament, first from Launceton and later from the Isle of Wight. After serving as Attorney-General for some time he was allowed the almost unprecedented privilege of engaging in private practice again while still holding that office. It is doubtful if any other advocate ever carried on a volume and variety of business equal to that of Sir Richard Webster during the years 1885-1900. There was hardly a case of prominence in the admiralty, the ecclesiastical or divorce courts in which he did not appear; and he was equally at home in the common law and chancery courts. He was an acknowledged authority in cases of condemnation and compensation, and was supreme in patent law and in all matters requiring a special knowledge of science. The amount of work he could accomplish was stupendous, and was partly due to the fine physique he has preserved by life-long athletic exercises. He is still, at the age of fifty-seven years, an excellent player of tennis and cricket.



M. PAUL LESSAR

Paul Lessar

The Man Who Tore Up the Manchurian Convention Treaty.

IF we scratch recent Russian diplomacy at the court of Peking, we shall find, not a Tartar, but a Montenegrin—M. Paul Lessar.

Paul Lessar was born in 1851, and was educated at the *Ecole des Ingenieurs*, St. Petersburg. On account of his ability he was chosen to accompany General Mikhail Skobeleff into Asia to survey for railways, soon after that general's conquest of the khanate of Khiva in the valley of the lower Oxus. In 1880 we find him accompanying General Komaroff as an expert in surveying and exploring the Turkoman country between the Caspian Sea and Afghanistan, the conquest of which was not completed by General Skobeleff until the following year. M.

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Lessar established himself at Askabad, in the Turkoman Steppe, now an important station on the Transcaspian Railway. In November, 1881, he penetrated beyond Sarakho, across the Afghan frontier, to within a few miles of Herat. That same year, this ancient city, known as the "Key to India," was taken by Abdurrahman Khan, after sustaining the fiftieth siege in its history. What M. Lessar had to relate of his transactions and observations there was not calculated to turn the eyes of Muscovite ambition from this fine strategic point. In the course of two years he rode on horseback fully six thousand miles, exploring all the ground of the Russo-Persian and Russo-Afghan frontier. From such severe schools he graduated to the position of diplomatic attaché to the Governor of the Transcaspian Province, and immediately found himself entrusted with establishing the Afghan frontier. In 1885, when the Russians seized Penjdeh, and war with Great Britain over the Afghan boundary was narrowly averted, M. Lessar was sent on a special mission to London as geographical expert, to assist the Russian ambassador in the negotiations that accompanied the dispatch of the Afghan Boundary Commission.

Nobody has been more active than Paul Lessar during the last decade in smoothing the way for what is aptly termed the Russian glacier movement eastward and southward. As an American he would glory in the name of pioneer. He stands to-day among the few survivors of the school of Russian officials that has had to do with the winning of the East. How much longer his activity may continue in oriental affairs is a question, as he is said to be suffering from an incurable malady.

Sir Henry Mortimer Durand

The New British Ambassador to the United States

THE significant feature of the appointment of Sir Henry Mortimer Durand to succeed the late Sir Michael Herbert lies in the fact that it is the first time the British government has sent an envoy of ambassadorial rank directly to Washington. Hitherto, Washington has been regarded as ranking among the least important of the embassies, and a minister

SIR HENRY MORTIMER DURAND

has been promoted to an ambassadorship. The new envoy's commission was signed by King Edward October 25, the selection causing some surprise, as Durand has never had any official connection with Washington, though he has often expressed a liking for America and a desire to go to the United States. As in the case of the late Lord Pauncefote's selection, the qualification that appealed most strongly to Foreign Secretary Lansdowne was Durand's reputation of being a good lawyer, in addition to his wide diplomatic experience.

Sir Henry was born in India in 1850, the son of the late Major-General Sir Henry Durand, R.E., and Anne, daughter of Sir J. McCaskill, K.C.B. He was educated at Blackheath School, and at Eton House, Tonbridge. In 1872 he became a barrister in Lincoln's Inn, and the following year he entered the Bengal Civil Service. The knowledge he acquired of India and its affairs was of the most intimate kind. He became private secretary to the viceroy and filled various posts in the Indian Foreign Office. During the Kabul campaign in 1879, he was political

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secretary to General Roberts. In 1884-94 he was Foreign Secretary in India, and in 1893 conducted the British mission to the Ameer of Afghanistan to settle the Afghan boundary question. In 1894 he became British minister to Persia and, during the six years he served there, was regarded as the most astute diplomat ever sent by Great Britain to Teheran. He was made a member of the British Privy Council in 1901, and the year after he became ambassador and consul-general to Spain, which office he leaves to go to Washington.

Sir Henry Durand was married in 1875 to Ella Reve, daughter of Teignmouth Sandys, of the British Civil Service. Their son is an officer in a lancers regiment and their daughter is a favorite in Madrid society. Lady Durand is at present in poor health, but it is hoped that the American climate will be beneficial and enable her to fulfill the duties of hostess of the embassy at Washington.

In intervals of leisure, Sir Henry has produced several books. He edited his father's "History of the First Afghan War, 1879"; and wrote a biography of his father in 1883. Also, in 1891, he published a novel entitled, "Helen Trevelyan."

Myron T. Herrick
Governor-Elect of Ohio

OF all the seven governors elected November 3, none possesses a more interesting personality than Myron T. Herrick, of Ohio. No story of success in modern fiction can compare with the truth about his career. Mr. Herrick's father was a poor but respected farmer, and Mr. Herrick's boyhood days were divided between toiling on his father's and neighboring farms and attending a little schoolhouse, which still stands in "Bull Hollow." His father refused to aid him in acquiring a college education, because of his disgust at his elder son, who ran away from college at the age of eighteen years to marry a school girl of sweet sixteen, and young Herrick had to work his own way to a degree.

Eventually, the time came when, as he was "getting down to nothing," he received an offer from a Cleveland firm of employment at peddling dinner bells through the country. He writes:

"I was asked to appear in Cleveland on a particular day, and while I believed I should get the job, I had mighty little money to carry me up to the appointed time. I figured it all over carefully and discovered that if I stayed at a hotel or went to a boarding-house I should not be able to put up the railroad fare, while if I paid my railroad fare, living at a hotel or a boarding-house was equally out of the question.

"There was only one thing to do, and that was to walk the streets and sleep where I could. I put in a little sleeping time down on the lake front and I got a few naps seated in chairs in hotel lobbies. Taking it altogether, I do not look back on that period as such a great hardship, because I was well and strong, and all I wanted was a chance to get to work.

"I sold lots of those bells and they are still doing good work. During my recent campaigning tour several old farmers have come up to me and told me that the bells were ringing without a crack, and those good bells I sold so many years ago seemed to tell the farmers that I deal in good goods and could be trusted."

In the course of his subsequent varied business experiences, Mr. Herrick not only developed business habits and methods which have made him a millionaire, but also displayed strong native talent for mixing with many classes of people and making friends readily. He is unassuming, democratic to the core, amiable and magnetic. He is tall, spare, handsome, without a trace of gray in his brown hair, with clear, laughing eyes, and a continuous winning smile. Though denied all oratorical training, and using a plain conversational tone and style in all public addresses, he has proved an effective, straightforward speaker, not only on account of his personal force and attractiveness but also because of his lucid, logical way of stating matters. Mr. Herrick adopted, during his campaign, the happy idea of presenting the State of Ohio as a great corporation and its election day as the time of its stockholders' meeting. He submitted the report of the financial condition of the state to the people in detail in simple, forcible language, and discussed the economic situation in a way well fitted to expose the fallacies of the single tax system.

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MYRON T. HERRICK
Governor of Ohio

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THE WORLD'S THOUGHT

CRITICAL ESTIMATES OF ANSWERS TO LIVE QUESTIONS

Will Industrialism End International War?

WITHIN the past few weeks President W. H. P. Faunce, in the *Atlantic Monthly* for November, and Hervé Blondel, in the *Revue Internationale de Sociologie,* have argued vigorously in favor of international peace. M. Blondel, while admitting that war in the ancient world served to spread civilization, holds that in our present industrial development "war shocks more and more a widened altruism." President Faunce rather unexpectedly argues that college athletics are training men into a habit of mind favorable to settling international disputes by arbitration. We do not understand that he would argue that this is the main contribution made by our colleges to international peace. If this were the case, the situation would be discouraging. The referee and umpire do not determine which eleven wins the football match but are assistants of the struggling academicians. There are, of course, other contributions like the study of sociology and the impetus given by colleges to those sciences which result in new means of transportation and communication. These latter matters President Faunce evidently considers of vital importance. Naturally, therefore, his position is essentially that of the Frenchman's: the rise of an industrial age will put an end to international wars.

Such a conclusion is one devoutly to be hoped for, but unless all signs fail, the fighting instinct of the race is not particularly quieted by industrialism. The chief enemy of international peace just at present is the desire for commercial expansion on the part of different nationalities. Within nationalities themselves the struggle between economic classes is quite as vigorous, if not as bloody, as the former struggles between rival political houses. It may be that men will be deterred from actual warfare by the feeling that no nation can afford the luxury of killing and being killed according to rule, but peace, when it comes, will not be a matter of the pocket-book but of the moral sense. When we can create a public opinion that does not confuse patriotism with a mad desire to injure somebody, international peace will follow as a natural result.

College Athletics and College Morals

THE football season is always disgraced by charges and countercharges of dishonesty on the part of our educational institutions. To so high a degree does the attendance at a seat of learning depend upon its victories in athletics that the struggle between colleges for football players has become actual business competition. It is doubtless true that the agents in such competition are overzealous alumni rather than officers of the institution, but the institutions themselves connive at the zeal of their supporters. It is doubtful whether one-third of the promising athletes who have entered the larger colleges and universities this autumn have not received offers of material assistance as an inducement to attend some particular institution. Many of these boys have been approached by representatives of several institutions, and in some cases an alumnus has not hesitated to attempt to induce a young man to change his college affiliations even after he has matriculated.

It would be interesting to know how many of the members of the football teams are actually paying tuition in the colleges they attend. That they all eat at training tables supported to a greater or less degree by the athletic association with which they are connected, goes without saying. That they are as regular in their attendance upon classes as they are upon such tables is not quite so certain. There

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are institutions which enforce scholarship requirements upon members of athletic teams as severely as in the case of less muscular students, but there are others that are even charged with permitting embryo prize-fighters to maintain a tenuous connection with one class a week.

The situation is confessedly trying. College officers are but human and can not be expected to investigate the career of all students who flock to the assistance of their athletic manager. On the whole, the situation is probably better than it was ten years ago. At least athletes are more generally bona fide students than they were at that time, but the situation is bad enough, and public opinion should force colleges and universities to take such steps as will prevent the series of charges and countercharges which every autumn fill the daily papers. And it should force these institutions to put athletics on a less pretentious footing. College sports cost too much to-day for the good of those connected with them. They should be endowed. But even more pressing than the endowment of athletics and the abolition of gate receipts is the moral quickening of those immediately concerned in the control of our college athletics.

The *Chicago Daily Tribune* has recently called attention to the fact that in the case of several thousand embezzlers reported since January 1, 1903, a very large proportion began their downward career in petty gambling on horse races and other sports. This showing is a terrible one and its cause is undoubtedly correctly stated. Gambling in the form of betting upon sports is more universal to-day than ever before, nor is it by any means confined to any one class of men. The university student bets as enthusiastically upon his team as a Tammany chieftain does upon an election, or a clerk upon a "sure thing" on a race track.

Gambling is a disease from which the body corporate is never free, and a universally effective cure is certainly hard to invent. It is therefore the more gratifying to find that the press is pleading with the average man not to tempt fortune at the races. It would be doubly gratifying to discover that university authorities are just as eager to stop betting on the part of their students.

Are We Ashamed of Our Name?

POPE PIUS X was expected to appoint a new cardinal for the United States because of a remark he had made soon after his election. It turns out now that he said "American" cardinals, and meant South American. Such a use of the adjective is common enough in Europe; and the quiet assurance with which we of the United States assume the name America and the epithet American in common speech has scarcely the warrant of logic to counteract foreign usage. It is interesting to note how seldom in familiar conversation we use our real name, the United States of America. One hears "the nation," "the country," "the government," "our country," "we," "Uncle Sam," and every sort of synonym; never, however, from native American lips "the States," which is universal in Great Britain. Why is it that we avoid specific mention of the one name which we have a right to—the United States? Imagine an Englishman who never spoke of Britain, a Frenchman who avoided mention of France, a German who always substituted "the fatherland" or "the empire" for Deutschland.

Perhaps the real cause of this singular disuse is to be seen in the great struggle a generation since, when men cheered for the Union rather than for a United States. Perhaps the very omission of the word "States" was an unconscious emphasizing of the federal supremacy over the states' rights. But those days are long past. The Union is now a union of states with no conflict of authority or fear of any such conflict. As for brevity, if a man's name has four syllables or three initials, does he clip it down to a manageable mouthful? Even in these days of conscienceless hurry we have time to rise when we sing the national anthem; time to learn the national anthem so that we can sing it when we do rise; time to salute the flag under proper circumstances, as the men of the army and the navy are required to salute it, and time to call our nation by its proper name.

Some of us need an accession of courage to enable us to use "United States" with a singular verb. The United States is one nation, and present official usage recognizes the title as a singular noun. Perhaps one reason why the name is avoided

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in familiar speech is the grammatical conscience which hesitates at this seeming anomaly. As for the lack of an adjective corresponding to "United States," we shall have to make the best of it. Probably "American" will make a place for itself in European usage, and the Canadians already accept it without protest, preferring to remain distinguished by their own geographical name.

Why Not Give Canada a Port?

NOW that the United States has won practically all that it has claimed at the hands of the Alaskan Boundary Commission, is it not time for the United States to put itself in Canada's place, and to do the generous thing by Canada? Anybody who looks at a map of southeastern Alaska and the Klondike region will see why the Canadians were so eager for a seaport on Lynn Canal or Glacier Bay. That they have tried to get such a port by asserting a claim which seems to Americans wholly without historical foundation, should no longer blind us to the fact that it is very hard for them to be shut out from the sea by so narrow a strip of American territory. What the United States was prepared to grant as the basis of a friendly international agreement years ago, it can now afford to offer without sacrifice of dignity as soon as Canadian sentiment is ready for it—the cession of a port for a Canadian outlet. No important American interest would be sacrificed by such a transfer if proper treaty provisions were made safeguarding American rights in the ceded strip of territory.

There are the best of reasons why the United States and Canada should be good friends. There is much to unite and little to divide the two countries. Annexation, it is true, does not enter practically into the present situation, but a close reciprocal alliance, with liberal tariff concessions, is greatly to be desired. Americans are flocking into the Canadian Northwest, as pointed out by Mr. Henry F. Cope in his article, "The American Invasion of Canada," in this magazine. Canadians by the thousand are useful and respected citizens of the American cities along our northern border. Let the United States take the initiative in proposing an adjustment of the several pending international questions upon a basis which will be not only just but generous to Canada.

Are Dogmas Matters of Taste?

MR. WALTER R. CASSELS, author of "Supernatural Religion"—a work which horrified the last generation of churchmen—declares in the *Nineteenth Century* for October that nowadays "dogmas are matters of taste, matters of opinion which are dropped with little or no examination and held with no discrimination. Christianity has become a mere religion of the heart and of the imagination." Now a man's judgment upon the religious, like that upon the political situation, depends upon the company he keeps, and it is very probable that Mr. Cassels' words are true as regards his immediate circle, or are believed by it to represent the situation among intelligent Christians. But they are by no means true of the Christian world at large. Higher criticism has not destroyed the intellectual supports of Christian faith, however much it has affected doctrine as to the Bible. There is growing up all over the world a new generation of men whose theology is not based on an assumption as to inspiration but upon the scientific study of the sources presupposed by historical Christianity. These men are no more dependent upon their emotions than upon their reason. They do not hold a dogma because it suits their taste, but because they believe it to be true. And they are the men who will control the great religious awakening which, though so zealously prophesied, seems so slow in coming. Sooner or later religious experience reaches back for intellectual convictions. If they be wanting, religious enthusiasm cools. The hope of the church of the future lies not with the men who would force upon it the intellectual habits and convictions bequeathed by a prescientific age, but with those who live the life of their own age. And it may be that the church of to-day, like the disciples of old, is so intent upon having its own program fulfilled as to be blind to the fact that the religious awakening is to be already seen in the new passion for social righteousness and for sacrificing service to the needy.

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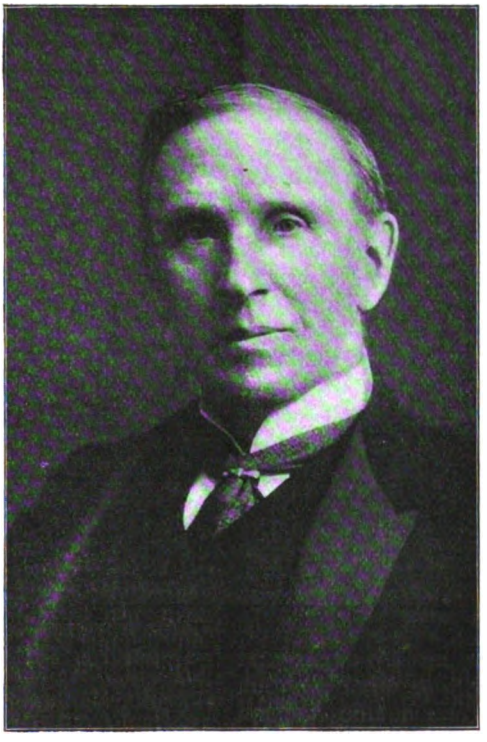
BOOKS AND READING

Morley's Life of Gladstone*

By Shailer Mathews

THE retirement of Mr. Morley from public life during a period when his presence might have been of particular value to his party, has at least a partial justification in the appearance of this magnificent tribute to his great master. His success is not merely that of the literary worker. The problem of sifting between two and three hundred thousand written papers is certainly not inconsiderable and the well-known prodigality of Mr. Gladstone in letter-writing must have made the difficulty all the greater; but the greatest of all the difficulties confronting the biographer must have been the character of Mr. Gladstone himself. In his long political life there were three careers, either one of which would have given him historical distinction. Had Mr. Gladstone died at the age of fifty, the limit reached by the first volume, he would have been remembered as a most brilliant orator and indefatigable worker in various cabinet positions; a man, on the whole, of conservative tendencies, and a statesman who had hardly justified the high hopes aroused by his early manhood. In entering upon his second career, which may be said to have begun during the early sixties, he discovered that remarkable susceptibility to progressive public opinion which, as much as anything else, was the secret of his new importance. He had begun his career in Parliament as an opponent to practically every reform step. By the time he was twenty-four he had spoken or voted against, one might almost say, every great cause which he subsequently was to champion: Irish reform, the admission of Jews to Parliament, the admission of dissenters to the universities, the abolition of military and naval sinecures and of flogging in the army; the extension of the ballot and the revision of the corn laws. Almost his first speech in Parliament was against immediate emancipation of the slaves in the West Indies. But gradually he had been affected by the rising spirit of liberalism, he had become a member of Lord Palmerston's cabinet, and with the rise of the great questions which agitated England from 1860 to 1870, he became thoroughly identified with the Liberal movement and swept the country on the question of disestablishment in Ireland.



JOHN MORLEY

Mr. Morley does not furnish us with many incidents from this period of remarkable transition. One, however, he does give which is characteristic. The communication from the Queen implying that Mr. Gladstone should form his first government, reached him as he was chopping down a tree. He read the telegram and handed it to Mr. Evelyn

* The Life of William Gladstone. By John Morley. New York: The Macmillan Company. 3 Vols. Pp. X-661; VI-641; VI-666. $10.50.

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Ashley with the simple remark, "Very significant." After chopping a few moments longer, he exclaimed: "My mission is to pacify Ireland!" His second career may be said to have lasted during the life of his first ministry. Then came a period of growing unpopularity and retirement. But again he was to voice a rising public opinion and his third career began with the wonderful campaign of 1880. The result of that campaign is known to all, but it is hard to realize that when Mr. Gladstone for a second time became Prime Minister he was a man of seventy, and that the events which we are most accustomed to associate with his life belong therefore to a career that began when most men have passed off the stage of political activity. It is of these later and most trying years that Mr. Morley's third volume treats.

It was inevitable that Mr. Morley should have been drawn into historical discussion, but such discussion does not destroy the biographical value of his work. Its magnitude prevents the sharpness of impression which a briefer work would have produced, but this indefiniteness of impression is doubtless itself biographical. One will rise from reading the book with a new conviction of what might be called the impersonality of Mr. Gladstone. He seems to have possessed few of those qualities which enable the biographer to reproduce a character in miniature. If the figure be not too extreme, the impression made by this biography is that Mr. Gladstone was an incarnation of a certain public opinion. It was this, coupled with his intense moral earnestness, that gave him his strength, and it is this national personality, if the expression be permitted, with which Mr. Morley has mostly dealt. Those who desire a more intimate portrait of Mr. Gladstone should read the brief biographies by Russell and Hamilton, the latter of which is said to be especially esteemed by the members of the family of Mr. Gladstone.

Mr. Morley has not attempted to deal with the religious elements of Mr. Gladstone's career, frankly confessing that such should be treated by one more in sympathy with Mr. Gladstone's position, but he has treated his literary work in some detail. And, although he writes as a friend and disciple, he does not fear to criticize. Many will fail to see why Mr. Gladstone should have been so terribly hated by thousands of Englishmen, but the reason for such hatred is supplied by Mr. Morley's treatment none the less. Mr. Gladstone represented and voiced the progressive spirit of England. The Tory element could not but hate him in this representative capacity. It may be further said that Mr. Morley has omitted important material bearing upon the great transitions of Mr. Gladstone's life. There may be some ground for this accusation, but we are inclined to believe such omissions a matter of necessity rather than of choice. The impersonality of Mr. Gladstone and his essentially philosophical turn of mind took from transitional moments the picturesque and dramatic element which we are accustomed to associate with such experiences in the case of other men. We can not, indeed, help wishing Mr. Morley had given us a little more information concerning the relation of Mr. Gladstone with the Queen. It is an open secret that Victoria turned to Mr. Gladstone only under compulsion to form cabinets and the relations between the two personages certainly appeal to one's imagination. We have, it is true, a few words from Mr. Gladstone describing his call upon the Queen on presenting his resignation at the age of eighty-five, and we have also the pathetic story of how, as a dying man, he called upon her, a feeble old woman in southern France, and for the first time was permitted to shake her hand. But after all, it may be nothing but the curiosity born of journalistic interviewing that demands revelations of such personal matters. And assuredly in the case of the Soudan tragedy we are given information which is new and personal. Probably Mr. Morley's judgment in his selection of material is to be trusted.

Thus, altogether, one can express only profoundest admiration for the balanced and the even temper as well as the extraordinary literary qualities which Mr. Morley has brought to his task. It is not too much to say that in dignity of treatment, literary excellence, impartiality, and above all, biographical interpretation of history in the making, this noble work will stand as one of the great biographies of English literature.

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Children's Books for the Holidays

By Wallace Rice

SEVERAL hundreds of new publications, intended for the reading of children of all sizes and ages and of both sexes, are announced to appear this season, and most of them have already been seen in the market. In such a mass there is certain to be a sacrifice of quality to quantity, a distinct lack of originality, and a general failure to achieve even such excellence as may keep the work alive through the ensuing twelvemonth. "When a new book is written I read an old one," said Emerson, and the demand for new editions of old and worthy books is accordingly great.

"The Story of King Arthur and His Knights" (Scribner, $1.50 net) is retold by Howard Pyle as well as illustrated anew, and it is in every way suitable for children of all ages. So the new collection made by Andrew Lang and called "The Crimson Fairy Book" (Longmans, $1.75), though it goes further afield for its material than any of its predecessors with the colored titles, is rather the more interesting on that account. Literary regurgitation is coming to be more and more the fashion of it, and two examples are to be seen in new volumes of the "Famous Children of Literature" series edited by Frederic Lawrence Knowles: "The Story of Little David" from Dickens's "David Copperfield," and "The Story of Tom and Maggie" from George Eliot's "The Mill on the Floss." (Estes, each 75 cents net). Crowell continues to enlarge his "Children's Favorite Classics" series (each 60 cents), this year adding "Pilgrim's Progress," "Fables of Esop" and Lamb's "Tales from Shakespeare" to the list, with Sarah E. Dawes's "Bible Stories for Young People" and "Fairy Legends from the French Provinces," translated from the French originals by Mrs. M. Cary. Miss Eva March Tappan does a difficult thing well in "The Christ Story" (Houghton, $1.50 net). Andrew Lang retells "The Story of the Golden Fleece" (Altemus, $1), and there is a good and practical revival of Anderson's "Fairy Tales" (New Amsterdam, $1). "Robin Hood, His Book" (Little, Brown & Co.) contains the folk tales of the famous outlaw, retold by Eva March Tappan with much spirit and humor, with illustrations in color by Charlotte Harding. Any boy should be proud to own it.

Several wholesome books for boys relating to school and college life have been written, quite the best of them coming this year, as in former years, from the pen of Ralph Henry Barbour. It is called "Weatherby's Inning" (Appleton, $1.25 net), and deals with the fortunes of a freshman who comes into possession of himself through baseball. A close second is Albertus T. Dudley's "Following the Ball" (Lee & Shepard, $1 net), the tale of a boy at Exeter on his way to Harvard, with a healthy interest in football behind it. Everett T. Tomlinson in "The Winner" (American Baptist Publication Society, $1) lets a high-school boy work out his own salvation, placing him in opposition to his wise teacher at the beginning, and bringing him into better things.

It is seldom a more desirable book for boys is written than Willis B. Hawkins's "Andy Barr" (Lothrop, $1.50), since it deals with the days of the Civil War without in the least extolling the military spirit. Mr. Hawkins has made a real success, the humor of his hero insuring him an appreciative audience among the elders as well. Written out of full knowledge of the newspaper business, Samuel Travers Clover tells of the manner in which Paul Travers, already known from the author's earlier book, wins his way to success and manhood in "On Special Assignment" (Lothrop, $1 net). It is a book without exaggerations, and always interesting. "Young Heroes of Wire and Rail" (Lee & Shepard, $1 net) is a manly exposition of what can be done to make the world better and braver, written by Alvah Milton Kerr, railway man and telegrapher.

A ship abandoned in the Pacific, with life on a new island for several busy months, makes up the substance of "Joe's Signal Code" (Lee & Shepard, $1 net), a well told story by W. Reiff Hesser, an electrical expert with useful information to impart. "Joe the Surveyor" by Edward Stratemeyer, is of rather sensational character, the hero meeting with more than the usual allotment of exciting episodes (Lee & Shepard, 80 cents net).

Historical subjects of all sorts occupy a large class in the books for children newly published. Such a compilation of interesting and instructive anecdote as H. Twitchell's "Famous Children" (Lee & Shepard, $1 net) leaves little to be desired. Russell Doubleday's "Stories of Inventors" (Doubleday, $1.25 net) is fully modern, and good to read. History at its best for young people may be found in Eva March Tappan's "In the Days of Queen Victoria" (Lee & Shepard, 80 cents net), an accurate and well told narrative of a most instructive and important reign. "Daniel Webster for Young Americans" (Little, Brown, $1.50) is edited from his greatest speeches by Charles F. Richardson, with Whipple's essay on Webster's style by way of introduction. This is a comparatively new field, and one to be commended. Everett T. Tomlinson's "Young Folks' History of the Revolution" (Doubleday, $1.20 net) appears in a new edition, a tribute to a work of merit. Annie M. Barnes takes a little Massachusetts girl to South Carolina two hundred years ago, in "Little Bettie Blew: Her Strange Experiences and Adventures in Indian Land" (Lee & Shepard, $1 net), and discloses a chapter in colonial history too little known.

Other works of historical interest, old or new, deal with war almost entirely, and it is curious to see that the conflict with Mexico, which was little written of by Americans for many years, is coming into full prominence again, without a hint to indicate that, however proud we may be of the deeds of our soldiers and sailors then, the war itself was an unjust one. "The Giant of Three Wars" (Appleton, $1 net) is an account of the life of Winfield Scott by James Barnes, nearly all about the Mexican occupation, though 1812 and the Civil War surround the wonderful march from the sea to the enemy's capital. "In the War with Mexico" (Scribner, $1.20 net) is Cyrus Townsend Brady's story of a midshipman's life afloat and ashore, and "Ahead of

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the Army" (Lothrop, $1 net) is William O. Stoddard's tale of an American lad in Mexico when war breaks out. Vivid accounts, all of these, with mighty deeds of valor throughout, but the cause was not a good one. Adele E. Thompson goes abroad for the subject matter of "A Lassie of the Isles" (Lee & Shepard, $1 net), her heroine being that Flora Macdonald of Skye who helped the young Pretender to escape. The best of material finds place in Edward Stratemeyer's "At the Fall of Montreal" (Lee & Shepard, $1 net), with Montcalm, Wolfe and the Plains of Abraham for its climax. The Revolutionary War is discussed in one or more of its bearings in Everett T. Tomlinson's "A Lieutenant under Washington" (Houghton, Mifflin, $1.20 net), in Edward A. Rand's "Fifer Boy of Boston Siege" (Jennings & Pye, 50 cents net), in William O. Stoddard's "The Spy of Yorktown" (Appleton, $1.25 net), and in "Brother Jonathan" (Appleton, $1.25 net), in which last Hezekiah Butterworth presents a fine portrait of that Jonathan Trumbull who was the friend of Washington and of liberty.

Ernest Thompson Seton works out his really authentic knowledge of out-of-door life in "Two Little Savages" (Doubleday, $1.75 net), a book that can be unqualifiedly commended as healthy in every page. Of the same sort, with a little more stress on athletics in general and nothing about Indians in it, is Edward Sandys's "Trapper Jim" (Macmillan, $1.50 net). Nothing better than this latter book can be given a lad who needs larger interests in life than mere books can afford him. Hiawatha may be recognized under his other name of Nanahboozhoo in Egerton R. Young's "Algonquin Indian Tales" (Jennings & Pye, $1.25), a number of myths gathered at first hand from the lips of Indians in many instances, the whole being entertaining and worth comparing with Longfellow's versions of several of the same stories. "In African Forest and Jungle" (Scribner, $1.50 net), by the late Paul Du Chaillu, is in the best manner of that much regretted writer, forest life under the equator and much authentic natural history giving it interest. "The Spinner Family" by Alice Jean Patterson, recounts in simple manner the habits and characteristics of the common spiders. It is attractive reading for young folks and well illustrated (McClurg).

Of animal stories we have two very attractive in "Jack the Fire Dog" by Lily F. Wesselhoeft, who has already provided many good books of this kind (Little, Brown, $1 net), and "Rover's Story" or the autobiography of a collie dog, by Helena Higginbotham (Lee & Shepard).

"The Girl Who Kept Up" (Lee & Shepard, $1 net) is Mary McCrae Culter's tale of a young girl who did not let the fact that the boy she loved was in college deter her from working out her own intellectual salvation and keeping herself a worthy companion for him. Old friends reappear in Miss Sophie May's "Joy Bells: A Story of Quinnebassett" (Lee & Shepard, $1 net), the title explaining the happy ending of a delightful story for girls. "A Daughter of the Rich" (Little, Brown, $1.50) brings a city girl and a country damsel into friendship, with the greatest benefit to the child of luxury. It is by M. E. Waller. "New Fortunes: How Molly and Her Brothers Came to Boulder Gulch" (Barnes, $1.25 net) is Mabel Earle's account of difficulties overcome in a western mining camp, original in theme and treatment. "Dorothy's Playmates" and "Randy and Prue," by Amy Brooks, are additions to series already known (Lee & Shepard, 80 cents each).

There is a regiment of books for children of either sex, and none makes more profitable reading in the fullest sense than "Children of the Tenements" (Macmillan, $1.50) by Jacob A. Riis.

Frances Margaret Fox tells the story of a foundling who comes into her own at last in "Little Lady Marjorie" (Page, $1.20 net), the interval being passed with the light-house keepers in the Straits of Mackinac. Amy Le Feuvre, writer of stories with a strong religious suggestion, has two this year, "Jill's Red Bag," dealing with the children of an English family, and "Two Tramps," an account of an uncle and small nephew who roam about through England looking for health and finding it (Revell, each 75 cents net). Two fresh volumes are added to the "Little Cousin Series" by Mary H. Wade, telling of Italian and Norwegian children (Page, 50 cents net). "The Frolicsome Four," by Edith L. and Ariadne Gilbert, is a wholesome story of two brothers and two sisters aged six to twelve (Lee & Shepard, 80 cents net). To the "Cosey Corner Series" Jane Scott Woodruff adds a pleasant story of "The Little Christmas Shoe," illustrated, and Ida Horton Cash, one for older girls, entitled, "The Little Professor" (Page, each 40 cents net).

Fairies continue to fill their proper place in imaginative literature, and an original bit of work has been done by Netta Syrett in "Six Fairy Plays for Children" (John Lane, $1 net) wherein half a dozen themes are worked out in dramatic form with comparatively little apparatus, for use in schools and at home. The plays are charming. Neville Caine has two complementary books filled with colored pictures, "The Fairies' Circus" and "The Fairies' Menagerie" (Harper, each $1.25), with the double attraction for little people their names indicate.

Cora B. Forbes, in "Elizabeth's Charm-String" (Little, $1 net), works over many of the standard legends in an attractive manner, and it is a book to be read with profit. "The Outlook Fairy Book for Little People" (The Outlook Co., $1.20) is an admirable collection by Laura Winnington of the most famous fairy stories, illustrated by J. Conacher.

Pictures rather more than subjects give desirability to a number of volumes, "Denslow's Picture Books for Children" (Dillingham, each 25 cents) by William Wallace Denslow, taking a high place. There are a dozen of them and all are good. Wit is in both text and illustrations in Oscar M. Gottschalk's "Innocent Industries; or, Kindergarten Tales for Industrious Infants" (Russell, $1.25). Equally clever are George V. Hobart's "Li'l Verses for Li'l Fellows" (Russell, $1.40 net).

This list, though far from complete, indicates a number of worthy books of more than average merit, generally speaking, though the standard is comparative rather than absolute.

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Mr. L. Frank Baum, who had such a success with "The Wizard of Oz," follows it up this season with a handsome new edition (Indianapolis: The Bobbs-Merrill Company). It is the fantastic tale of a little girl carried away by a Kansas cyclone to the land of the queer people children love to read about. The same writer has also "The Enchanted Island of Yew" (Bobbs-Merrill Company), which is more like the orthodox fairy tale. "The Magical Monarch of Mo" is a third volume of delightful nonsense from Mr. Baum's prolific pen. No small part of the success of this class of books is dependent on the exceedingly attractive form in which publishers now issue them. Each of Mr. Baum's volumes has been illustrated by an artist specially skilled in this sort of work, and there are some very amusing sketches among them. The colorwork is elaborate. "The New Wizard of Oz" is mostly in bold reds and greens, "The Enchanted Island of Yew" and "The Magical Monarch" have quieter tones. All three are charming holiday gifts, as is also "The Songs of the Trees," by Mary Y. Robinson, another Bobbs-Merrill book just published. "Troubadour Tales," by Evaleen Stein (Bobbs-Merrill), is a charming story-book for older children. The bewildering variety of holiday books for young folks is proof that a success in this field is profitable to author and publisher. The man who can introduce a new fashion in juveniles is on the road to a fortune, for his public is practically unlimited.

STANLEY WEYMAN, AUTHOR OF "THE LONG NIGHT"

Fall Fiction

Mr. George Ade informs us in his preface to "In Babel, Stories of Chicago" (McClure, Phillips & Co., $1.50), that he publishes the book that it "may serve as an antidote for the slang which has been administered to the public in such frequent doses of late." We are not quite sure that we want an antidote for the slang, but these short stories are capital reading and show that the success of Mr. Ade's other work does not rest wholly upon vocabularies. They are, of course, too short to constitute literature in the traditional sense of the word, but they are capital illustrations of the short story reduced to its lowest terms, as the mathematicians would say. What is more, they are additional evidence that Chicago is blessed with some extraordinarily bright newspaper folk.

Stanley J. Weyman returns to his kingdom in "The Long Night" (McClure, Phillips & Co., $1.50), only it is not to the dashing adventures of "The Gentleman of France," but rather to the tragedy of "Under the Red Robe." Witchcraft, treachery and brutality, as they existed in Geneva in the seventeenth century, are offset by the passionate love of a daughter for her half-mad mother. The volume abounds in dramatic situations, and the last chapters, in which Mr. Weyman describes the assault on Geneva by the Savoyard troops, which had been admitted by Syndic of the guard, are equal to the best work he has done.

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DAVID GRAHAM PHILLIPS
Author of "The Master Rogue"

David Graham Phillips, when he wrote "The Master Rogue" made a serious mistake in adopting the autobiographical form. It is inconceivable that such a man as its chief personage should have undertaken such a journal. There is material enough in the book to make a strong novel. As it is, Mr. Phillips has produced nothing more than a sketch, interesting it is true, but still a sketch.

Albert R. Carman is a new name for American readers, although the Canadian reading public has known him for several years, both as a journalist and as a story writer. In "The Pensionnaires" (Boston: H. P. Turner & Co., $1.50) he has given a story which is singularly full of promise. It is that of a young American girl who goes to Europe to train a wonderful voice and experiences there the awakening of love. The theme obviously is not new, but the treatment is fresh and interesting. Mr. Carman appreciates the anomalies as well as the advantages of the continental pension and his pages are full of a quiet humor that will recall to many a reader his own experiences.

In "The Adventures of Gerard" (McClure, Phillips & Co., $1.50) Conan Doyle has given us a character as distinct as Sherlock Holmes, but very different from that inductive solver of mysteries. Gerard is a Gascon brigadier of Napoleon, who relates with the most delightful naïvete the adventures through which he passed during his campaigns. A no more delightfully unconscious braggart and brave man has ever appeared in literature since the days of D'Artagnan. We hope that Dr. Doyle will exploit this Gascon as he did Sherlock Holmes. There are great possibilities in him. Only let us hope that the good doctor will not feel obliged to kill him off too soon. Even with the help which his medical knowledge can bring him, we should hardly dare hope that he could accomplish a second resurrection.

Not all modern fiction can be unreservedly recommended for Sunday school libraries, but "A Modern Patrician," by N. Ainsworth Montgomery (Boston: Earle, $1.50), can unreservedly be so recommended. It is a story with an obvious lesson drawn from the results of two ideals of life as represented by a charming young girl from the country and her fashionable aunt and her associates. It is satisfactory to find at the end that the heroine, after experiencing and learning of various adventures in a heartless and even immoral fashionable society, is happily married to the doctor of her choice. The book is interesting and barring certain lapses into stilted style, is well written.

Lillian Bell's arts of caricature are called into play in "The Dowager Countess and the American Girl" (Harper's, $1). It is an attempt to place in a new and more odious light the narrowness and haughtiness of British matrons. We have the usual situation of an American girl marrying into an exclusive and hostile English family, and her fight for recognition. In the effort to be clever Mrs. Bogue has several times come near to vulgarity, and the whole performance is very slight. Why it was worth doing at all is an unanswered question.

In "The Sherrods" (Dodd, Mead & Co., $1.50) George Barr McCutcheon has unfortunately left the field of romance made familiar by "Graustark" and "Castle Craneycrow" and come into the life of ordinary people. Yet the doings of these people can hardly be said to be ordinary. Dudley Sherrod marries a beautiful country girl, then falls in love with a beautiful, rich, city girl and marries her, too. The effort to maintain a duplicated domesticity naturally involves him in certain adventures, which Mr. McCutcheon relates in an entertaining fashion. For a while the artist is able to maintain his two wives in the proper alibi and convinces himself that he loves one no more than the other. The inevitable happens at last, however. The two wives meet and the artist, who has proved that he is a liar as well as a bigamist, plunges a Malay dagger into his heart. Each wife holds a funeral service over the remains and then the two go out into the world to live together in Europe. Mr. McCutcheon treats these bizarre incidents seriously, but we could wish that in the future he located improbabilities in equally improbable surroundings.

A new book by Paul du Chaillu, "In African Forest and Jungle" (Scribner's, $1.50), is a new reminder of the loss which healthy literature has suffered in his death. His present volume occupies a middle ground between juveniles and a book of travels. It is written with its author's well-known spirit and although containing nothing new and apparently drawn from his earlier experiences, is full of interest.

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Helps for Sunday School Teachers

For adult classes the American Institute of Sacred Literature offers an attractive series of courses, prepared by teachers of scholarship and experience. Two of these will be of especial interest as touching the Life of Jesus, which is the subject of the International Lessons for the six months following January, 1904. The first is a historical study of the "Life of Jesus" from the four gospels, based on the "Harmony of the Gospels," by Stevens and Burton. The second is a course upon the "Social and Ethical Teaching of Jesus," a study of Scripture material containing the teaching of Jesus. These courses are so carefully arranged that they are equally suitable for home study as for class work, and for this reason they are especially commended for Home Department work.

Two highly suggestive books for teachers of children from six to ten years of age are "Old Testament Manual" and "Notes on New Testament Lessons," by Frederica Beard (Winona Publishing Company, Chicago). The first, containing suggestions for a two years' course in the Old Testament stories, calls for the use of Moulton's Bible Stories by the children. The second is accompanied by a little book containing the revised biblical text of about forty stories from the life of Jesus, not altogether happily termed, "Wonder Stories." To follow out the lessons as they stand would demand room and equipment not available in the majority of schools, and the lessons at times present too much of the kindergarten element to be attractive to children of the fourth and fifth grades, but the teacher who can judiciously select both material and method of presentation will find it well worth while to experiment with these little manuals. They recognize the fact that children are capable of thinking and working in the Sunday school as well as in the day school.

"Sunday School Teaching," by Rev. William Walter Smith, M.A., M.D., secretary of the Sunday School Commission of the Diocese of New York, contains the simple elements of child-study and religious pedagogy in popular and interesting form, compiled from leading educators. This little volume ought to go into the hands of every Sunday school teacher who is not a student of pedagogy in a professional sense. The strength of the writers quoted, the wise selection of matter, and the concise and readable form in which this is given make the work worthy of its purpose. It supplies a need that has been self-evident. (Young Churchman Company, Milwaukee.)

Every one interested in the moral and religious training of children in the home, the day school or the Sunday school will be interested in "The Teacher and the Child," by H. Thistleton Mark. It is written primarily for the Sunday school teacher, by one who shows his power in a happy combination of scientific truth and simplicity of expression. After a clear, though brief, exposition of the nature and training of the mind, the writer brightly discusses method in teaching, with suggestion and illustration that truly illustrates. (Fleming H. Revell, Chicago.)

Dr. R. A. Torrey publishes for the fifth time "The Gist of the Lesson" (Chicago: Fleming H. Revell Co., 35 cents), a condensed commentary upon the International Sunday School Lessons, printed and bound in such shape that it can be carried in the vest pocket.

For those who have been following other than the International Lessons, and especially those who have been pursuing the work on the life of Christ by the same authors, "Studies in the Apostolic Church," by C. H. Morgan, T. E. Taylor and S. Earle Taylor (Cincinnati: Jennings & Pye), will be found useful. The material treated is so divided that each day has its own particular passages to be considered. The book furnishes brief exegetical notes and suggests a number of topics for special study, together with references to appropriate literature.

"Arnold's Practical Commentary Sunday School Lessons for 1904" (Chicago: Fleming H. Revell Co., 50 cents) is on the general plan of the much superior Peloubet publications. It is not without helpful characteristics, but it is cheap in appearance and is mediocre in contents.

In "Chalk" (Chicago: Fleming H. Revell Co., 75 cents net) Ella N. Wood has given some interesting suggestions as to how to use a blackboard. The little book does not attempt to be artistic, but reproduces the actual sort of drawings boys without special training can make with chalk. Some of its teachings, like its drawings, seem at times a little grotesque, but any teacher can get from it genuinely helpful suggestions.

Chautauqua Books for 1903—1904

Of the four books for home reading in the Chautauquan course for the present season, Professor R. T. Ely's "Evolution of Industrial Society" has already been reviewed. The other three volumes are "Literary Leaders of America," by Richard Burton (The Chautauqua Press, $1); "Provincial Types in American Fiction," by Horace Spencer Fiske ($1); and "Geographic Influences in American History," by Albert P. Brigham ($1.25).

Professor Burton's chapters on the leading American writers are pleasant introductions to the study of our literature. His finished style lends a charm to his estimates of men and books, and many besides elementary students will be interested in his chapters on Poe and Whitman. The plan of the book includes the presentation of several typical pieces of each author's writing, so that we have not only a manual of literary biography but an anthology, which compares favorably with some of the more pretentious histories of American letters.

Mr. Fiske chooses typical characters from Howells, Wilkins, Jewett, Page, Hopkinson, Smith, Harris, Cable, Murfree, and the newer western writers. He retells characteristic episodes from the stories in such a way as to bring out the fidelity of the writer to actual types. There is little criticism in the book, but what there is shows good sense and literary judgment.

Professor Brigham has chosen a fascinating topic and has handled it well. The shaping forces of physical contours and formations upon the history of the United States have been dealt with by many historians, but to bring together in a popular manual, illustrated by views of

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typical scenery, the broader generalizations of this branch of geography was a worthy task. The young student perceives that historical geography has much of interest for him aside from the changes of political boundaries by wars and treaties. The men and women of to-day, in order to be good citizens, need to know the fundamental geographical facts which determine the resources, the commercial advantages, the social differences, of our much diversified domain; and Mr. Brigham's introduction will lead many to further investigation for themselves in this rich field.

The People of the Abyss. By Jack London. New York. The Macmillan Company. Pp. xiii, 319. $2 net.

In 1902 Mr. London lived in East London in the guise of a sailor out of a job. He walked the streets with unemployed men, suffered with them the discomforts of municipal lodging houses and Salvation Army relief houses, and learned the misery of sleeping in the parks. No more terrible picture of the hopelessness of the London poor could be drawn. No traveler can forget the first impression made upon him by the London poor, but these pages of Mr. London make the misery of the "submerged tenth" altogether too vivid for the reader's comfort. But it would be a great mistake to think of the book as a mere record of adventure. It has all the seriousness of a lay sermon. Possibly at times Mr. London may seem to speak too vehemently of the neglect shown the poor by Christian people, but any one who has faced the actual conditions he describes can hardly fail to share in his indignation. In these days of agitation as to the future of the English people, such a book as this confirms the judgment based on other evidence that there is something fundamentally wrong in political and economic conditions which permit one in eleven of the entire working class of the United Kingdom to receive poor law relief and 37,500,000 people to live at a rate of less than $60 per month for the expense of an entire family.

It would be out of place to compare this book of Mr. London with a voluminous work like that of Charles Booth, but it must at least be said that it brings home the terrible situation even more effectively than can statistics. The man who can read it and not feel some prompting to help the poor of his own city, is indeed calloused.

Who's Who in America. 1903-1905. Edited by John W. Leonard. Chicago: A. N. Marquis & Co. Pp. lxiv, 1,744. $3.50.

The third edition of this invaluable handbook of current biography contains nearly four thousand more names than its predecessor and altogether presents us with brief biographical accounts of 14,443 persons. The worth of the book was universally admitted with the appearance of its first edition in 1899 and this edition only confirms the impression made by its predecessors. The conscientious care given to every detail is something extraordinary. Nor is the volume simply a collection of uncorrelated facts. In the few pages of introduction there is brought together a most interesting series of conclusions as regards the facts printed in the main body of the volume. As important as any of these are the deductions that of the persons who are distinguished enough to find admission to the pages of the volume, 58.38 per cent are over fifty; that 91.81 per cent of the men are married; that 58.36 per cent of the men are college graduates, and that 69.76 per cent of the whole number of both sexes have attended colleges for some period of greater or less duration. It is also to be noted that a statistical presentation of the facts of the volume shows that the age of marriage on the part of the educated men is not unduly late—seventy per cent being married by the time they are thirty years old.

Poe's Best Poems and Essays. Poe's Best Tales. Edited by Sherwin Cody. Two volumes. Pp. xiii, 485; xix, 476. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1 each.

Mr. Cody's introductory essays and his biography of Poe show high appreciation and admiration of the genius of the unhappy man whom it is now the fashion to exalt to a chief place in the ranks of American men of letters. Yet the biographer is not blind to the faults of his hero, both personal and intellectual. While he defends Poe against the charge of being a mere common drunkard, and attributes his weakness for stimulants and narcotics to a long-standing nervous disease, he admits the perversity, the morbidity, the exaggerations and the occasional untruthfulness which caused Poe to be so bitterly assailed by his contemporaries. Mr. Cody has rendered a valuable service to students and teachers of literature in collecting the best critical essays and book reviews of Poe from many sources and placing them in connection with his poems. The volume of tales shows good judgment in the selection of material and contains all the most famous of the stories. Particular care has been taken to restore the original text, which has been much altered by some previous editors.

The Forest. By Stewart Edward White. New York: The Outlook Company. Pp. 276. $1.50 net.

This beautifully printed volume reproduces the sketches which Mr. White has already contributed to the pages of *The Outlook*. Not altogether adapted to serial publication, collected in a volume they are almost a classic treatment of life in the woods. There is no man of us who knows what it means to cast a fly in a trout stream or shoulder his pack across the carry, who will not find delight in every page. It is not a book that seeks to appeal to our esthetic side, but is a straightforward absorbing record of actual experiences. There are books on the woods that we know perfectly well were written by gentlemen who are not content unless they have course dinners in the forest, and who describe their poetical thoughts as to the world they see rather than the world itself; but Mr. White is not of these. To read his work in the rush

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of the city, with the prospect of winter before one, is to make one rail at fate.

Norwegian By-Ways. By Charles W. Wood, author of "Letters from Majorca," "Glories of Spain," "In the Valley of the Rhone," etc. With nine illustrations. New York: The Macmillan Company. Pp. 384.

To see Norway through the eyes of another, one can not do better than to read this enthusiastic description of travel therein. Mr. Wood has the faculty of putting his reader immediately *en rapport* with the situation, be it a pleasure or a disappointment or a humorous episode. The exhilarating effect of Norwegian air and scenery permeates the book.

Backgrounds of Literature. By Hamilton Wright Mabie. New York: The Outlook Co. Pp. xi, 302. $2.00 net.

Anything that Mr. Mabie writes we may very well believe is worth reading. His most recent volume, with its beautiful illustrations, is no exception. Mr. Mabie has not limited his work to any particular group or nation, but portrays the homes of American, English and German classics with impartial interest. As unique and local a study as any is that upon Walt Whitman, while the papers upon Walter Scott and Wordsworth cover more familiar ground. The few words of appreciation of Scott's absorption in feudalism, with which the volume ends, are a delightful defense of the great master. Mr. Mabie has brought to his task not only literary sympathy and skill, but also a clear perception of the fact that geography and literary criticism are not to be identified. As a consequence, his volume is a delightful interweaving of the various elements which enable one to appreciate literature as an actually human product.

The Life and Times of Thomas Jefferson. By Thomas E. Watson. New York: D. Appleton & Co. Pp. 534. $2.50.

Thomas Watson could not write anything conventional or unpicturesque. In his present volume, besides unconventionality and picturesqueness, we have a southerner's appreciation of the work of the great southern statesman. We can hardly expect that the volume would contain much that is new, so thoroughly have the sources of American history been worked through, yet one always gets new appreciation of a historical character by considering him from a new angle, and certainly Mr. Watson is capable of supplying any number of such angles. At all events, Mr. Jefferson never had a more ardent admirer. We could hardly expect him to love Alexander Hamilton, but it will certainly surprise those who have been taught to take the great Federalist's name with bated breath to learn, "As surely as harvest is due to sower, Alexander Hamilton was the father of plutocracy, the trust, and the lobby." It will be evident that Mr. Watson still holds certain political views which make the dedication of his work to William R. Hearst particularly appropriate.

A History of Modern Europe. By Merrick Whitcomb. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

Several good histories of Europe for college text-books have been published during the last few years. Mr. Whitcomb's volume differs from these in being adapted to the use of younger students in high schools and academies. It is written in a bright, readable style, and made attractive by frequent subheads and other typographical devices. Brief quotations from the original sources at the end of each chapter are adapted to stimulate the student to further investigation among the original documents, and thus prepare him for more thorough application of the source method in his college work in history. There are numerous illustrations and maps. Emphasis is placed upon nineteenth-century history, and thus the topics which are of immediate interest are not slighted as they are apt to be in courses which attempt elaborate treatment of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries.

History of Coinage and Currency in the United States and the Perennial Contest for Sound Money. By A. Barton Hepburn, LL.D. New York: The Macmillan Company. Pp. xiv, 666. $2 net.

Few men in the United States have had a larger practical knowledge of monetary affairs than Mr. Hepburn. As Comptroller of the Currency, as Superintendent of the Banking Department of the State of New York and the present Vice-President of the Chase National Bank, as well as President of the Sound Money League of a few years since, he has seen the actual working of public finance in such a way as to make any opinion of his on the subject of money worthy of special attention. The present volume is an elaborate account of the history of the various attempts to issue substitutes for gold. In the appendix is a collection of the various acts dealing with the history of the monetary system of the United States and throughout the book there is a surprising amount of information concerning the various systems of banking and of the various issues of money which have characterized American history. Probably all of this material is accessible to technical students of the history of money, yet the volume will be of real assistance to those who wish to have their material readily at their disposal. For students of political economy in our colleges the book will be of great service. Attention should especially be called to the chapters upon the Silver Contest (17-18) in which recent financial history is presented succinctly and accurately.

Hints for Lay Preachers. By F. B. Meyer. Chicago: Fleming H. Revell Company. Pp. 128.

Lay preachers are not as numerous an order in this country as in England, but the counsels contained in this little volume are equally applicable to preachers cleric and lay. They are the fruit of much observation and experience, and come with authority from one who is himself a forceful and effective preacher.

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History of Socialism in the United States. By Morris Hillquit. Pp. 371. New York: Funk & Wagnalls Co. $1.50 net.

Mr. Hillquit is a leading American Socialist, who writes of the history of Socialism with full knowledge and sympathy. His sketch of the several early socialistic and communistic communities in America is evidently based on careful study of the sources. After a brief description of the sectarian experiments the writer devotes several chapters to a thorough discussion of the work of Robert Owen and the Fourierist and Icarian communities of the middle third of the last century. The second half of the book is given to modern American Socialism, with the rise and fall of the Socialist Labor party; and the closing chapters present the outlook for Socialism as viewed by a member of the school. He has high hopes for the new Socialist party, and believes that it is making progress among the ranks of organized labor, where the fortunes of Socialism have been so variable. Mr. Hillquit's book is a useful handbook for students of sociology and for general readers. His estimates of men and movements are for the most part fair. In discussing the riot in Haymarket Square and the trial of the anarchists he openly condemns the methods pursued at the trial, though disavowing sympathy with the anarchistic views of the convicted men. In his opinion anarchism is now quiescent in America and Socialism is gaining rapidly.

The Geography of Disease. By Frank G. Clemow. With twelve folded maps. Cambridge: The University Press. 1903. Pp. xvi, 624. $1.50.

This is the sixth volume in the Cambridge geographical series, and a worthy one, keeping up the standard set by Keane in the initial volume. "The study of the manner in which disease is spread over the earth's surface, or in other words, the geography of disease, is a science of comparatively recent growth, and it may be regarded as still in its infancy." The data for the science have not been accumulated until very recently. The present volume is the first serious treatment of the subject in the English language, though there are several classic works in French, German and Italian.

The author classifies the diseases as (1) general medical and surgical diseases, (2) diseases of the skin, and (3) diseases associated with animal parasites, and the volume is divided into three books to correspond. In Book I forty-seven diseases are given specific treatment, the arrangement being alphabetical by common names, and in nearly every case a large folding map shows the areal distribution and routes of migration of the disease.

Curious conditions are shown as limiting or determining the spread of disease where a parasite is the agent. Parasites often depend, for the cycle of their development, upon two or more hosts. In the case of one worm, five hosts are involved. The clue to the suppression of malaria is found in the possibility of interrupting the cycle of development of the microbe, by destroying the breeding places of the mosquito host. The charts at page 531 are eloquent in showing the value of this knowledge as applied to yellow fever at Havana. In October, 1900, there were, in Havana, 308 cases of yellow fever, and seventy-four deaths, not an excessive condition for the average October. On February 15, 1901, the new sanitary regulations were put in force. In ninety days the city was free from yellow fever, for the first time in four hundred years, and there has not been a case developed in the town since. How much this means, one may realize when he recalls that there were recorded in Havana, between 1853 and 1900, 35,952 deaths from yellow fever alone.

Proverbs and Common Sayings from the Chinese. By Arthur H. Smith. Pp. 374. American Mission Press, Shanghai.

Occasionally there appears, in some out-of-the-way quarter of the world, a book of such interest and value as to be a permanent addition to literature, and it is often its fate, for its foreign birth and for the far distance that its appeal for favor has to come, to be passed by almost unnoticed and presently forgotten. This is what befell the first edition of Doctor Smith's "Chinese Proverbs," published a few years ago in Shanghai. Its readers in the far East, however, were so numerous that he has now issued a second and enlarged edition of the work, which should find a wide circle of readers in England and America. Any work from the hand of this author is not only one of the first authority on things Chinese, but it is sure to be brightened by his unfailing genius. A book of proverbs is generally understood to savor a little of chopped straw, for the drouthiness of its matter; but this collection of near two thousand phrases, proverbs, odes and couplets is a mine of interest and humor. Its title gives some indication of its readableness—"Proverbs and Common Sayings from the Chinese, Together with Much Related and Unrelated Matter, Interspersed with Observations on Chinese Things in General." The "unrelated matter" and "interspersed observations" are cheering to the most jaded spirit.

Famous Assassinations. By Francis Johnson. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. Pp. 434.

The thought which has prompted this collection of historical sketches is that many of the famous assassinations of history have been due, not to personal malice, but to political and social movements of permanent significance. The writer has chosen thirty-one assassinations, from Philip of Macedon to King Alexander of Servia. In each chapter he attempts to show how the political conditions of the time led up to the act of violence which caused the death of a ruler. There is thus no attempt at continuity in the volume. The sources for the narrative have been drawn from standard historical works. Each chapter is illustrated with a portrait of the murdered ruler.

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The Poetical Works of William Cullen Bryant. Roslyn Edition. With a Chronology of Bryant's Life and Poems and a Bibliography of His Writings by Henry C. Sturges, and a Memoir of His Life by Richard Henry Stoddard. New York: D. Appleton & Co. Pp. cxxx, 418.

This is the most complete edition of Bryant's works, and will undoubtedly be accepted as the standard collection for all time. It is the only complete edition in one volume. In addition to the poems, the volume contains a very careful and elaborate chronology of the poet's life and writings by Henry C. Sturges, and a sympathetic memoir by the late Richard Henry Stoddard, which must have been one of the last things that came from his pen. Bryant's place among American poets grows more secure as the years pass. Critical opinions waver in their estimate of Longfellow or Lowell, but Bryant, as the American poet of nature, is now universally recognized. Along with much mediocre writing, he has left us a few nature poems which are among the classics of our literature. Casual readers of verse who know nothing of his beyond "Thanatopsis" and one or two of the lyrics, will find in this complete and admirable edition much noble poetry which will open to them new fields of appreciation and interest.

'Twixt God and Mammon. By William Edwards Tirebuck. With a Memoir of the Author by Hall Caine. New York: D. Appleton & Co. Pp. 313. $1.50.

The chief interest in this book lies in the fact that Hall Caine wrote the introduction to it. The chief value of the introduction lies in its refusal to play false to its author's literary conscience. Mr. Tirebuck was Hall Caine's friend, but no man could write a fairer estimate of the mediocrity of his work than Hall Caine himself. The book, as books run, is remarkable for neither obtrusive virtues nor obtrusive defects.

Agriculture for Beginners. By C. W. Burkett, Frank L. Stevens and Daniel H. Hill. Boston: Ginn & Co. Pp. 267.

The authors of this book, who are professors in the North Carolina College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts, have produced a manual which seems almost ideal for the use of pupils in rural schools. They have written chapters on soils, agricultural botany, orchard and garden insects, plant diseases, domestic animals, dairying, and other topics involved in modern scientific agriculture. The book is thoroughly up to date in its treatment of the theoretical and the practical side of American farming, yet it is written in a style which is simple enough for young pupils without any of the excessive "writing down" which disfigures so many books on nature study. The volume is profusely illustrated with photographs and drawings. The experimental method is recommended throughout. The rural pupil is required to supplement his use of the book by experiments in his own garden and observation on the farm. City school children might learn some of the interesting things which they do not know about the growth of farm and garden crops by mere reading of the book, even without experiment. Considering the disgraceful ignorance of country life which prevails in most city schools, this little volume should certainly be recommended for optional or required reading in schools.

The Mental Traits of Sex. By Helen Bradford Thompson. Chicago: University of Chicago Press. Pp. viii, 188. $1.25.

Much has been written in the way of speculation and generalization about the mental difference between men and women. Miss Thompson is one of the few investigators to apply to this ever-fascinating subject the exact methods of the modern psychological laboratory. She has conducted at the University of Chicago extensive experiments upon men and women students of the university in order to ascertain the relative speed and accuracy of their various intellectual processes. What the psychologist calls the "reaction-times" have been measured with a high degree of accuracy by instruments devised for that purpose. The students selected for these purposes were supposed to represent the educated class of normal young Americans. Although the number of persons whose characteristics were studied was not large enough to warrant any very elaborate or exact generalizations, the care with which the experiments were made and the ingenuity with which the author has compiled her results give distinct value to this study. She finds that women's senses are more acute in all respects except the perception of light; that women have finer discrimination than men in pitch and in color; that women and men have equal discrimination in temperature, odor and pressure. Her investigation of the intellectual faculties accords with the prevailing view that women are superior to men in memory and association, while men are superior in ingenuity and invention. The general tendency of her work is to minimize the organic sexual differences and to attribute many of the differences which actually are found to the different education and environment of the sexes.

Daughters of Darkness in Sunny India. By Beatrice M. Harband. New York and Chicago: Fleming H. Revell Company. Pp. 302. Price $1, net.

An inside view of home life in India, revealing conditions which arouse intense interest in the reader and impress one strongly with the reality of the need for the enlightenment brought by the gospel of Christ. The story is told with vivacity and vigor; the movement is rapid and no words are wasted in moral dissertations or prosy interludes. Given more such books and there will be less occasion to complain of a lack of interest in foreign missionary enterprise. This story makes its own appeal, and an effective one it is.

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An Examination of Society, from the Standpoint of Evolution. By Louis Wallis. Columbus, Ohio: The Argus Press. Pp. 325. $1.75.

This volume is a somewhat elaborate attempt at reducing social development to a philosophy, and as such shows the strong influence of Spencer, Ward and Small. By tracing the development of human history from the prehistoric age to modern days, it undertakes to establish the thesis that the capitalization of social development is made possible by the cleavage of social classes. Of the entire amount of space, 137 pages are given to a sociological rewriting of Old Testament history on the basis of modern criticism. The book contains much thought, but is ill-proportioned and covers altogether too much ground.

A Handbook of Modern Japan. By Ernest W. Clement. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. Pp. 395. $1.50.

Many books have appeared during the last ten years dealing with the art and social life of modern Japan. There are also several elaborate works of reference which may serve the student and the traveler, but there was still room for a popular handbook which should be thoroughly up-to-date and should present the nation as it is. Mr. Clement has spent some years as a teacher in Japan and is thoroughly acquainted with its language, its history and its social characteristics. He has contributed many thoughtful and timely articles to American periodicals, dealing with contemporary phases of Japanese life, and as a correspondent for daily newspapers has kept himself in touch with Japanese politics. His handbook is a model in its arrangement as an outline for the study of the country. There are copious references to the accessible literature on the subject, and the authority for important statements is usually cited. The book covers the geography of the country, means of travel, customs, history, government, international relations, law, language and literature, education, art and religion. Mr. Clement seems to have lived long enough in Japan to appreciate the cleverness and versatility of the Japanese, without acquiring that wholesale adulation of their country which detracts from the value of many enthusiastic works by recent travelers and temporary residents.

Reciprocity. By J. Lawrence Laughlin and H. Parker Willis. New York: The Baker & Taylor Co. Pp. xi, 583. $2 net.

There was abundant need of a careful treatment upon the subject which this thoroughgoing volume treats. Reciprocity is in many ways an unaccustomed word to American citizens. Although during the period before the war it was by no means unconsidered, it is only within recent years that it has bulked largely in American politics. In the present volume Professors Laughlin and Willis have given an elaborate account of the history of the various attempts at establishing international reciprocity, beginning the first real experiment on the part of America in 1854, when, by treaty, we entered into reciprocity arrangements with Canada. A second chapter deals with similar arrangements with Hawaii. The bulk of the book, however, is really a study of the agitation in favor of reciprocity since 1890. As would be expected, especial attention is given to the rôle played by the sugar industry in the controversy and to the question of reciprocity with Cuba. It would be difficult to find a more illuminating treatment of a very complex question than is contained in the chapter on the latter subject. The volume concludes with a carefully worded prediction to the effect that reciprocity is not likely ever to meet the real problem involved in international commerce and that a moderate tariff revision is likely to be effected within a short time. An appendix contains not only valuable bibliographies, but also reprints of the reciprocity treaties between the United States and different countries, together with statistics showing the effect of such treaties upon commerce. The volume is marked by characteristic balance of judgment as well as indefatigable investigation, and is indubitably one of the most important works in economic history published within recent years.

Books on Transportation

Two valuable manuals on methods of transportation have just been published by D. Appleton & Co. "American Railway Transportation," by Emory R. Johnson, Ph.D., assistant professor of transportation and commerce in the University of Pennsylvania, is a text-book of railway history and methods. It is evidently intended for the use of students in college courses in commerce and economics. Opening with a brief historical sketch of American railway development, the author devotes several chapters to the organization of railway corporations and the principles of finance particularly applicable to railway business. Capital, earnings, expenses and dividends are carefully analyzed and the subject of freight rates is elaborately treated. There are chapters also on passenger service, the express business, the railway mail system, and other live subjects. The organization of a modern railway corporation with its system of departments and bureaus, under the general direction of the vice-presidents, is fully illustrated by diagrams and tables. The latter portion of the book is given to the subject of the relation of railways to the government, with some attention to the state railway systems of Europe.

"The Story of Rapid Transit," by Beckles Willson, issued by the same publishers, is a popular sketch of the progress of speed development in the various agencies of transportation and communication. Railways, steamships, the telegraph, the telephone, postal systems, bicycles, automobiles and other means of rapid transit, are included in the survey. The particular value of the summary is that definite dates and figures are given for the successive speed records in these several branches of rapid transit. Such data are often hard to locate when needed, and writers whose work touches upon these topics will find the book a useful work of reference.

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THE CALENDAR OF THE MONTH

FROM OCTOBER 15 TO NOVEMBER 15, 1903

UNITED STATES.

October 15.—Former Lieutenant-Governor James H. Tillman, of South Carolina, is acquitted of the murder of N. G. Gonzales, editor of *The State*, in Columbia, January 15, 1903.... A supplemental report of the United States Labor Bureau indicates that the cost of living has increased fifteen per cent since 1898.

October 16.—John Alexander Dowie and 3,500 followers arrive in New York City to carry on a proselyting crusade.

October 19.—The Maryland Trust Company and the Union Trust Company are in the hands of receivers. Five million dollars are rushed to Baltimore to prevent further failures there.

October 20.—The Supreme Court of Massachusetts sustains the ruling of the lower court that a person drunk by the voluntary use of intoxicating liquor may be convicted of intoxication without regard to the place where the act is committed, even if in one's own home..... James J. Hill, president of the Northern Securities Company, states in an address to the new North Dakota Irrigation Congress that with intelligent irrigation in North Dakota, 10,000,000 acres; in South Dakota, 5,000,000 acres; in Montana, 30,000,000 acres; in Idaho, 10,000,000 acres; in Washington, 15,000,000 acres could be brought under cultivation.

October 21.—Attorney-General Knox decides that the statute of limitations bars any prosecution of Congressman Littauer, accused of violating the law in regard to government contracts.

October 22.—By a decision handed down by District Judge Clancy, at Butte, Montana, Fritz Augustus Heinze is awarded the Minnie Healy mine, valued at $10,000,000, and the Amalgamated Copper Company is restrained from operating the Boston and Montana Mine, the richest in Montana....Samuel J. Parks, the convicted walking delegate, is arrested in New York city on a charge of perjury and confined in the Tombs.

October 23.—Washington officials receive reports of gigantic public frauds in the West.... The reorganization plan for the Consolidated Lake Superior Company, as perfected by the John W. Moffly Reorganization Committee, is viewed with favor by the rank and file of the stockholders, as it gives everybody concerned a chance to help rehabilitate the embarrassed concern. Nevertheless, it is the unanimous sentiment of the Moffly Committee that the directorate of the company, when reorganized, should consist entirely of men who have not hitherto taken part in the management, except possibly in the case of Cornelius Shields, who was recently elected president of the old company. B. F. Fackenthal, who has charge of the affairs of the company in the dual capacity of receiver, appointed by Speyer & Co., and of president of the subsidiary companies, has perfected arrangements to open such plants as can be operated profitably.

October 25.—The Ziegler North Pole expedition fails to reach Franz Josef Land.

October 26.—The United States Supreme Court decides that the Erie and other state canals are under the jurisdiction of the federal courts....F. A. Heinze, at a mass meeting of fifteen hundred miners, states that the MacGinnis and Lamm stock in the Boston and Montana and Parrot mines can be purchased at a reasonable figure only on condition that the Anaconda people convey to Heinze, for cost with interest, the shares they hold in the Nippur lode, and then promises to resume work in the closed mines. The Anaconda Company promptly rejects the offer....At the annual stockholders' meeting of the Consolidated Lake Superior Company at New Haven, Connecticut, the following board of directors, subject to change if the company is reorganized, is elected: Gordon Abbott, E. J. Berwind, F. A. Clergue, Cornelius Shields, Lynde Harrison, Horatio G. Lloyd, Charles E. Orvis, George Philler, S. M. Prevost, Samuel Rea, T. C. Search, James S. Swartz and Charles H. Tweed. Second Vice-President E. H. Sanborn announces that it is too early to speak with definiteness about the prospects of the company's reorganization; that the committee of stockholders in Philadelphia is to give information on this point as soon as possible. Mr. Sanborn adds that an inadequate accounting force in the company's offices has been unable to get ready the financial report, which must be presented at an adjourned meeting. The meeting is adjourned to November 24, in New Haven.

October 27.—Samuel J. Parks is put on trial on the charge of extorting $500 from Louis Schmidt, of the Tiffany studios, in consideration of which he ended a strike.

October 28.—Secretary of the Interior Hitchcock announces the completion of the Indian land frauds investigation.....Mrs. Emma Booth-Tucker, consul of the Salvation Army, loses her life in the wreck of a Santa Fe train at Dean Lake, Missouri.

October 30.—Samuel J. Parks, business agent of the Local No. 2, of the Housesmiths' and Bridgeworkers' Union, is convicted of extorting $500 from Louis Schmidt, treasurer of the Tiffany studios. Parks had already been fined $50 for assault, then convicted of extorting $200 from Josephus Plenty and sentenced to Sing Sing. Still other indictments for extortion and one for perjury hang over his head....David M. Parry is elected in Chicago by acclamation president of the newly formed Citizens' Industrial Association in America.

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October 31.—The Big Four football special train from Lafayette, Indiana, is wrecked at Indianapolis. Three players, seven substitutes, the assistant coach and the trainer of the Purdue University football team, and three other persons are killed. Fifty others, mostly students, are seriously injured....James Lynchehaun, fugitive from an Irish prison, is released from custody in Indianapolis as not extraditable. United States Commissioner Charles W. Moores rules that the crime for which Lynchehaun was sentenced in Ireland was a political one, incidental to a popular movement to overthrow the landlord system of Ireland. London papers are severe in their comments on the judgment.

November 3.—At Belleville, Illinois, nine members of the mob that lynched David Wyatt, a negro school teacher, June 6, are arrested and warrants are out for five more. Each of the men has been released on $200 bonds. They are George Schoopp, carpenter; William Deimling, molder; Henry Harszy, teamster; Eugene Hay, bookkeeper; Albert Weber, laborer; John Edeldorf, plumber; Julis Schwind, blacksmith; Frank Schilling, nickel-plater; Matthew Weiss, coal miner. Those indicted for the lynching and not arrested are Wayne Diller, William Boyce, James Anderson, John Wiscking and Adams Herold....Seven states elect full tickets, the new governors being as follows: Ohio, Myron T. Herrick, Republican; Kentucky, John C. W. Beckham, Democrat; Maryland, Edwin Warfield, Democrat; Massachusetts, John L. Bates, Republican; Iowa, Albert B. Cummins, Republican; Mississippi, James K. Vardaman, Democrat; Rhode Island, Lucius F. C. Garvin, Democrat. George B. McClellan, Tammany candidate, is elected mayor of New York.

November 4.—Five more citizens of Belleville, Illinois, arrested on indictments charging participation in the lynching of David S. Wyatt, a negro school teacher, June 6, are released on $200 bonds.

November 6.—Samuel J. Parks, the walking delegate of the Housesmiths' and Bridgemen's Union, who had been convicted of extortion, goes to Sing Sing prison to serve a sentence of two years and three months at hard labor passed upon him by Judge Newburger....Herbert Spencer receives one of the Alfred Nobel prizes. ....The United States recognizes the *de facto* provisional government of the new republic of Panama. Full recognition must await the formation of a permanent government on the isthmus.

November 9.—Congress convenes in extra session. Joseph G. Cannon, of Illinois, is chosen speaker of the House.

November 10.—In the Red Lake Indian Reservation, Minnesota, the Government opens 500,000 acres of land for settlement....Governor Toole, of Montana, calls a special session of the Legislature to meet December 1, to pass a law whereby mining cases may be taken from one court to another when the judge of the initial court is known to be prejudiced. By this call Montana finds industrial relief, for the works of the Amalgamated Copper Company in various parts of the State are to resume operations at once.

November 12.—The United States war department completes plans for sending General Thomas H. Barry with 1,600 men to Panama on board the ships Kilpatrick and McClellan, to protect the sovereignty of the isthmus under the New Granada treaty in case of interference by Colombia or any other foreign power....The United States Steel Corporation gives notice of its intention to cut down its yearly pay-roll by $15,000,000.

November 13.—President Roosevelt formally receives Mr. Bunau-Varilla as the diplomatic representative of Panama in the United States.

EUROPE.

October 18.—Pope Pius X appoints Monsignor Merry del Val papal secretary of state, to succeed Cardinal Rampolla.

October 19.—The Alaskan Boundary treaty is signed at London by all three American Commissioners and Lord Chief Justice Alverstone, the English Commissioner, thus deciding the question in all the contentions in favor of the United States, except that for Portland canal and two islands in it which go to Canada. Messrs. Jette and Aylesworth, the Canadian Commissioners, refuse to sign, and express their total disapproval of the document. The people of Canada are indignant over the decision.

October 20.—A new Norwegian cabinet is formed, consisting of the following: Professor Hagerup, premier and minister of justice; Sigurd Ibsen (a son of Henrik Ibsen, the Norwegian poet and dramatist), Norwegian minister of state at Stockholm; H. N. Bauge, minister of instruction; M. Schoeninge, minister of commerce; B. Kildal, minister of finance; M. Hansen, minister of public works; M. Mathiesen, minister of agriculture; Lieutenant-Colonel Strugstad, minister of war. M. Michelsen, a shipbuilder, and M. Vogt, a lawyer, are appointed ministers of state for Norway in the council of state, sitting at Stockholm....The Italian cabinet resigns.

October 22.—William E. Hartpole Lecky, the historian, dies in London, of heart disease.

October 24.—The Austro-Russian reform-scheme for Macedonia is presented to the Sultan; it proposes that the two allies control the disturbed provinces for two years.

October 25.—Sir Henry Mortimer Durand, the British ambassador at Madrid, is appointed British ambassador to the United States to succeed the late Sir Michael Herbert.

October 27.—President Sagatel Sagouni, of the Armenian Revolutionary Society, is assassinated at his home in London, presumably by a more radical fellow Armenian revolutionist from the United States.

October 28.—As a result of a conference at Paris between Count Lamsdorf and M. Delcassé, France agrees to join Russia in enforcing Macedonian reforms.

October 29.—Count Tisza forms a new Hungarian cabinet in accord with Emperor Francis Joseph on the language question, to be composed as follows: Count Stephen Tisza, premier and minister of the interior; Dr. de Lukacs, minister of finance; Herr Hieronomyi, minister of commerce; Count Michael Esterhazy, minister of agriculture; Herr Berzeviczy, minister of

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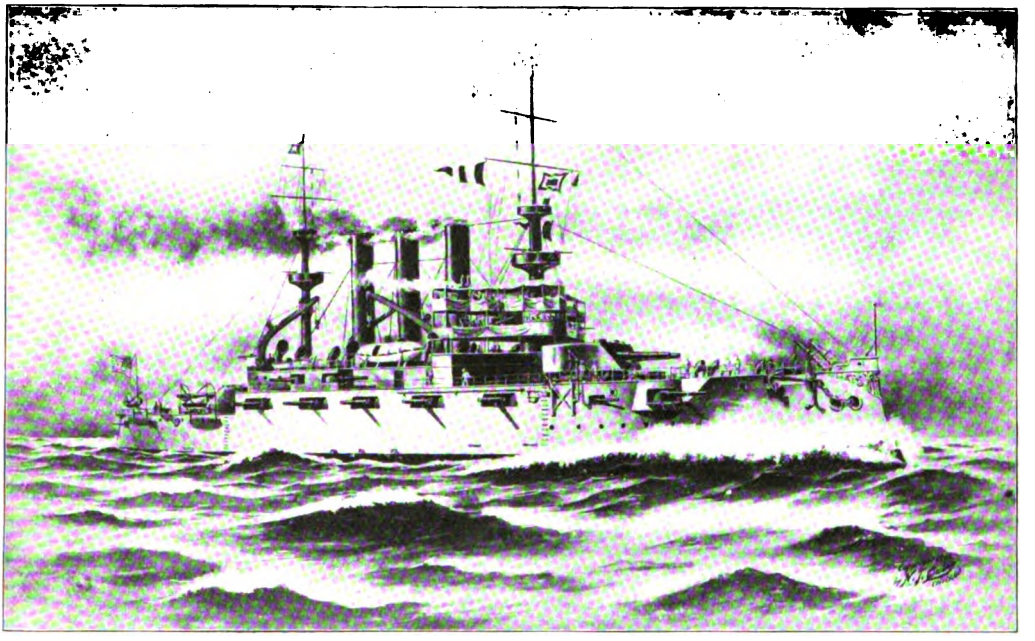

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THE NEW BATTLESHIP MISSOURI

The fastest battleship in the Navy, which made eighteen knots an hour on her trial run

instruction; Dr. Pless, minister of justice; General Myiry, minister of national defense.

October 31.—The Swedish Academy of Sciences has awarded the Alfred Nobel physical science prize for 1902 to Sig. Guglielmo Marconi, the inventor of wireless telegraphy. The prize consists of a diploma, a gold medal and $40,000.

November 1.—Fire breaks out in an upper story of the Vatican. Neither the library nor the palace is seriously damaged....Professor Theodor Mommsen, the famous German historian, dies at Berlin....A strike of thirty-five thousand iron workers at Bilboa, Spain, results in a victory for the laborers after a week of rioting, street fighting with troops, pillage and general excesses.

November 2.—The Russian Senate, the highest tribunal in the empire, decides that the sale of the great petroleum fields in the Caucasus to the Rothschilds is invalid because, as Jews, the Rothschilds are not permitted to hold property in the Caucasus.

November 3.—The new Italian cabinet takes oath and enters upon its duties. The members are as follows: Sig. Giolitti, premier and minister of the interior; Sig. Tittoni, minister of foreign affairs; Sig. Ronchetti, minister of justice; Sig. Luzzatti, minister of the treasury; Sig. Rosano, minister of finance; General Pedotti, minister of war; Admiral Mirabello, minister of marine; Sig. Orlando, minister of public instruction; Sig. Tedesco, minister of public works; Sig. Rava, minister of agriculture; Sig. Stellutiscala, minister of posts and telegraphs. ....Turkey's reply to the Austro-Russian reform statement expresses disapproval of the project as being superfluous, and reiterates declarations of the Porte's sincerity and success in the application of the former measures of reform.

November 4.—Czar Nicholas II. visits Kaiser Wilhelm in Wiesbaden.

November 6.—M. von Plehve, Russian minister of the interior, has issued an order prohibiting the Jews from visiting the health resorts of the Crimea or the Caucasus or on the Baltic Sea. Local authorities are ordered to arrest any Jew violating the prohibition.

November 7.—Surgeons remove a polypus from the larynx of Kaiser Wilhelm.

November 9.—Signor Rosano, Italian Minister of Finance in the new cabinet formed November 3, commits suicide at Naples because he was accused of accepting a bribe from Bergamasco, an anarchist, as the price of the necessary influence to relieve Bergamasco from police surveillance.

November 10.—The Hague Tribunal, having examined most of the claims against Venezuela, makes the following awards: To France, $540,000, as against a claim of $3,600,000; to Germany, $384,000, as against a claim of $1,200,000; to Great Britain, $120,000, as against a claim of $225,000, while the claim of Great Britain for compensation amounting to $1,500,000 in respect of railways was still under examination; Spain, $380,000, though that country claimed $2,500,000. The claims of the United States amounted to $15,390,000, and but $513,000 was awarded, while the examination of a portion of these claims amounting to $6,270,000 has not been completed....Kaiser Wilhelm continues to transact business and to walk in his park. The official bulletins indicate steady improvement of his vocal cords.

November 12.—The Lebaudy Brothers' dirigible balloon, in an hour and forty-one minutes, sails from Moisson to the Champs de Mars, Paris, a distance of forty-six miles.

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ASIA.

October 18.—A commission to manage affairs in the Far East is formed of several Russian ministers and Viceroy Alexieff, with the Czar as president....The Russian squadron has returned from Masanpho to Port Arthur; negotiations continue at Tokyo.

October 19.—The Russo-Japanese negotiations are suspended; many Russian warships leave Port Arthur and the Japanese fleet sails from Masanpho.

October 20.—It is reported that M. Paul Lessar, Russian minister to Peking, has concluded a treaty with China which gives Russia practical control of Manchuria, although under a nominal Chinese government.

October 28.—Prince Galitzin, the Russian governor of Caucasia, is attacked and stabbed several times by three natives at Tiflis, Russian Transcaucasia. He was not seriously wounded, and his assailants were shot down by his Cossack guards.

October 31.—China pays the third installment of its indemnity to the United States.

November 1.—Russian troops have reoccupied Mukden, the capital of Manchuria. The Chinese government is greatly alarmed....Viceroy Alexieff removes his headquarters from Port Arthur to Vladivostok.

November 2.—Turshiz, a town in Persia, is practically demolished by an earthquake. Three hundred and fifty inhabitants are killed and many more injured. One hundred and eighty-four carpet factories are destroyed.

November 3.—Diplomats interpret from Russia's withdrawal of her troops from Yongampho and the dismantling of her forts there that Russia and Japan have agreed on their respective absolute control of Manchuria and Korea.

November 13.—Over 10,000 imperial Chinese troops have crossed the frontier into Manchuria.

WEST INDIES.

October 26.—Rebels of San Domingo capture Santiago; the revolutionary movement is spreading in favor of ex-President Jiminez.

November 10.—San Domingo is closely besieged by the revolutionists. After three days' fighting, President Wos y Gil has taken refuge in the German consulate in San Domingo. General Jiminez, the revolutionary leader, has been proclaimed president of the republic.

THE PHILIPPINES.

October 5.—The finances of the Philippines are shown to be in excellent condition by the customs report for the fiscal year 1903. The imports of merchandise, exclusive of coin, were less by $253,673 than those of 1902; whereas the exports increased $8,862,700 over the preceding year. The balance of trade against the islands in 1902 was $8,686,193, while this year there is a balance in their favor of $530,180. The total foreign trade, exclusive of United States government importations in the two years, was as follows: 1902—imports, $33,420,680; exports, $24,733,887; 1903—imports, $33,166,407; exports, $33,896,587.

SOUTH AMERICA.

October 18.—Colombia sends a new canal treaty to the United States, involving the payment of $25,000,000 by the United States and an agreement to let the territory remain as a part of Colombia.

November 3.—Panama declares its independence of Colombia and proclaims a new republic. The Colombian cruisers in the Panama harbor are seized, Governor Obaldia, and all the Panama officials, together with Generals Tovar and Amayo, have been taken captives. All public buildings are in the hands of the provisional government of the new republic. The revolution was provoked chiefly by disgust at the Colombian government's rejection of the canal treaty....Seven American warships are ordered to Panama.

November 5.—Colombian troops evacuate the isthmus of Panama.

November 7.—Panama appoints M. Philippe Bunau-Varilla its diplomatic agent in the United States. He is one of the financial agents of the Panama Canal Company....The United States naval force in Panama waters has taken every precaution to prevent Colombia from landing troops at any point along the isthmus. Panama takes every precaution to meet the impending invasion of the land force of seven thousand men that Colombia has concentrated at Savanilla.

November 8.—News reaches Bogota of the secession of Panama from Colombia. The people are inflamed against the Colombian government and the United States. Crowds parade the streets, crying "Down with Marroquin."

November 12.—When news of the secession of Panama reaches Barranquilla, Colombians there throng the streets expressing rage against the United States, which they hold chiefly to blame, and threatening revolution against the Colombian government. Mobs stone the American consulate.

November 13.—Colombia decides to make war on Panama. General Rafael Reyes, appointed commander-in-chief of an army of invasion over Generals Caballeros, Ospina and Holguin, starts for the coast. Another army of 100,000 men is assembled in reserve.

AFRICA.

November 2.—At Warmbad, a mission station in Great Namaqualand, German Southwest Africa, the German garrison is annihilated by Hottentots.

November 6.—The German post at Usibio, in Damaraland, Africa, is taken by the Bondelzwarts, who massacre the garrison. Also the German post at Keetmanshoop, garrisoned by sixty white soldiers, is surrounded by Hottentots. The German relieving column, now marching from Witbois and Windhoek, is a three-weeks' journey from the seat of trouble.

OCEANIA.

October 31.—Governor Sanford B. Dole, of Hawaii, is appointed by President Roosevelt United States district judge for Hawaii, to succeed the late Judge Morris M. Estee. George R. Carter, secretary for Hawaii, is appointed governor, to succeed Mr. Dole.

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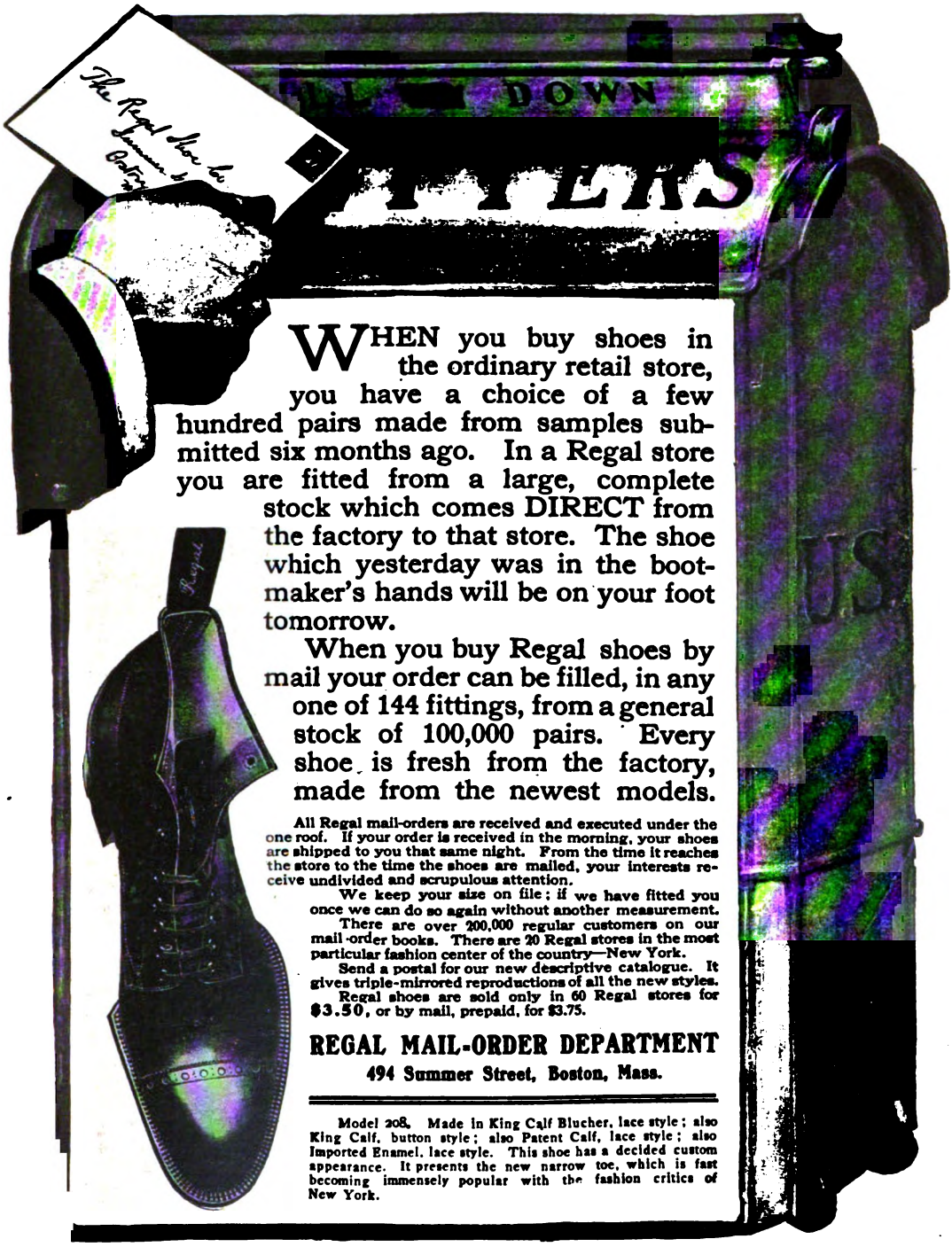

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